

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE discontent which has been smouldering in Louisiana for two years has broken out in an attempt at revolution. The whites in New Orleans have demanded Kellogg's resignation, and, Kellogg refusing, they have erected barricades and fought with the metropolitan police (mostly colored), Kellogg taking sanctuary in the Custom-house. Penn, the lieutenant-governor, in the absence of McEnery, issued a proclamation to the people of Louisiana, urging them to rise and drive the "usurpers" out of the State, and calling out the State militia. The citizens, after very little fighting, got possession of the city and the Government buildings on Tuesday. The President has issued a proclamation calling upon them to disperse within five days, and announcing his intention of enforcing the laws if they do not. The immediate cause of these disturbances is of course the approaching election, the Kellogg party having recently occupied themselves with seizing arms imported into the State, as they say, for the White Leaguers, under the pretence that the vessel which brought them had no manifest. On the other hand, the citizens point to the control which a recent law gave Kellogg over the election machinery, which renders a fair election impossible.

The trouble is now two years old, and, while there is little sympathy anywhere in the country for the violent remedies now adopted, there is as little doubt that the citizens are right in maintaining that Kellogg has been kept in power by fraudulent means and that his government is a usurpation. The history of the case has been often told. At the election of 1872 in Louisiana, there were two canvassing boards, both claiming to exercise the right of canvassing the votes cast, one in the interest of McEnery and the other in that of Kellogg. As nearly as can be made out, the Warmoth (McEnery) board was probably not a legal body, but it got possession of the returns, which showed a majority for McEnery, while the other board, which had no returns at all, was probably the only body legally authorized to canvass in the State. But before either board had made any returns, Kellogg and Casey got an order from Judge Durell, of the United States District Court, directing United States troops to take possession of the State House and install the Kellogg government. These matters were investigated more than a year ago by a Senate Committee, consisting of Messrs. Carpenter, Anthony, Alcorn, Logan, Trumbull, Morton, and Hill, and a majority reported that there was no State government existing in Louisiana; five members found that, if there was any legislature at all, it was the McEnery legislature. There could not well have been a more explicit censure of the method by which Kellogg had got possession of the State government; nevertheless, his government has been the only one recognized at Washington from the day of the election to the present moment.

Mr. Moulton's long-promised "statement" appeared during the week. It is of great length, and it would be impossible to analyze it, even if we had the space at command. Moreover, it is hardly necessary or worth while to do so, in view of the fact that the case is coming before the courts in October, when the whole story will be told over again, and when Moulton and Tilton and all concerned will be publicly examined and cross-examined. It is proper to say of the statement in the meantime, however, that, though damaging to Moulton himself in the highest degree, it unquestionably contains enough new matter, and enough corroboration of old matter, to render the report of the committee exonerating Mr. Beecher incomplete, and to render some further process of vindication abso-

lutely necessary. He must assume the offensive before some differently-constituted tribunal, and we would earnestly warn him and his friends against the supposition that the eager, credulous affection of Plymouth Church can save his character. It is well as far as it goes, but it goes only a very little way.

The greatest value of the Moulton statement lies, on the whole, in the fresh illustration it affords of the morality of chromo-civilization. A more revolting picture than he paints of this could hardly be imagined. Tilton drags his wife and children through a slough of filth to revenge himself on Dr. Bacon for calling him "a dog." Moulton assumes to Beecher the relation of an intimate friend, and the repository of awful secrets, which he blabs to his wife, his business partners, and all sorts of people during nearly the whole period. His pastor confesses to him offences of the most revolting kind, and he and his wife discuss them with the said pastor and his paramour in a friendly social way, and help him to conceal them and to retain his place as a Christian minister, and they both attend his preaching. Whenever, too, the parties to the scandal have anything particular to say to each other by way of reconciliation, or explanation, or accusation, or apology, they apparently cannot trust each other's oral statements, but draw up written protocols and treaties, which they confide to each other in solemn secrecy, but immediately begin to show to their friends. One husband in the drama mentions to some ladies at a dinner party an attack made on his wife's virtue by his religious teacher as part of the social gossip of the day. The Mutual Friend and "Man of the World" in the affair, too, when he finds himself in a position of great perplexity in the discharge of a duty of the utmost delicacy, selects as his adviser a criminal lawyer notorious for the knavery of his practice and for the dishonesty of his public and private life, and fills his report of his trust with filthy insinuations, and sneers, and commentaries evidently suggested by this old satyr; and the reason he gives for going to such a counsellor in such a case is that he once got him clear of a charge of fraud brought against him by the Custom-House.

In nothing does the moral rottenness of the circle show itself more thoroughly than in the readiness of its members to draw up and publish sham cards, correspondences, and reports intended to deceive the public, either by downright falsehoods or misleading suggestions. One of their favorite ways out of a quarrel appears to have been the joint composition of letters containing fulsome eulogies on each other, and the presentation of them to the world as spontaneous and sincere expressions of feeling, or of cards containing a few open lies. One injured husband actually drafted a report, which he wished a committee of Christian men to sign, pretending to have made a thorough examination of facts which they had not examined, and to have reached the conclusion that he, the husband, his wife whom he believed guilty of adultery, and the partner of her crime, were all three persons of great "moral integrity and elevation of character."

General Butler has delivered the opening speech in his district, announcing his intention to run for Congress, and making a rather lame defence of his last winter's campaign in Washington. He gives his reason for voting in favor of the first inflation scheme, and it is, as might have been expected, that he knew that what the country needed was inflation, and not contraction. He says that the great curse of this country now is the high rate of interest for money, about which he seems to have some private information, for he says it is from 12 to 15 per cent. He declared that the money-lenders are the only people in the United States who make any money, for they lend to the producer, and, taking from him 12 or 15 per cent., leave him nothing for profit, so that he has to cultivate

the ground at a loss, and continually falls behind, until he will very soon have to stop altogether. Perhaps by that time the money-lender will see how foolish his conduct has been, and lower his rates; but the General does not hold out any hopes of this. He makes another curious statement of a mysterious link which, he says, in the last Congress bound together the *Alabama* Claims Bill and the inflation scheme. The seat of empire, the General said, as many gentlemen have said before him, is now west of the Alleghenies; and the seat of empire wanted inflation. Massachusetts, he knew, might be doubtful about inflation, but the Massachusetts fishermen who had their vessels burnt by the *Alabama* wanted their claims paid. General Butler saw, therefore, that if he wanted the seat of empire to vote for the *Alabama* Bill, he must do something for the seat of empire in the inflation business in return. He therefore voted for inflation, and the *Alabama* Bill was passed. He would probably have furnished us with this explanation sooner if he had thought of it.

Politics in New York are rapidly approaching a crisis. The Democrats meet this week in convention at Syracuse, and will determine the question whether Mr. Tilden is to be nominated for governor or some one else. Tilden would probably make the strongest candidate the party can put up, and he is supported by Tammany Hall, now under the leadership of John Kelly, a Catholic, and formerly sheriff, who has made himself a good deal of political capital out of the mayor's case. The Governor has decided this matter, declining to remove the mayor, but severely censuring him for his disregard of public opinion and his reckless misconduct in office. With regard to the reappointment of Charlick and Gardner, each being appointed to the other's vacant place, the mayor stated in his answer to the charges against him that "this was done to evade no law," but "with the view to prevent the making of any question as to the legality of the appointments." As to this the Governor says:

"If there is any appreciable difference in the two branches of this proposition, it is believed that there will be found an insurmountable difficulty in logically defining it. It cannot be doubted that there was, in regard to the reappointment of the commissioners, an indirectness of action unworthy of the character of its author—by the device of procuring their resignations before the executive could give notice that vacancies were caused by their conviction; of obtaining from a subordinate in the law department an opinion in favor of the legality of their reappointment; of assigning each to the vacancy created by the other; and of hastening the consummation of the act, after receiving the Governor's notice, without having recourse to the best authority to assure himself that he was not acting in violation of law. In all this, and in the reappointment of the convicted commissioners while under indictment for other offences, he offered an affront to public opinion and to the moral sense of the community, which resulted, as might have been expected, in compelling them to abandon the posts in which they were thus indecently reinstated."

This is very well put, and effectually riddles Havemeyer's defence. Havemeyer's disappearance from public life is, of course, and has for some time been, a foregone conclusion; but as yet nothing seems settled as to his successor. Whoever he may be, we may be quite sure that the career of Havemeyer will be a warning to him—and particularly so if the next governor happens to be Dix.

The *Chicago Tribune*, in reply to the recent article in the *Nation* on "Chicago and the Insurance Companies," characterizes the statement made by us that, "so far as can be made out, they (the people of Chicago) have built up the city since the great conflagration of 1871 in very much the same condition as the fire found it," as being "extraordinary," "reckless," and "injurious," and mentions various particulars in which the rebuilt district is safer than before it was burnt. We have considered the *Tribune's* suggestion that we should send a competent investigator to report upon the condition of the rebuilt district, but we have decided not to do it; first, because any one can see that our article refers to the general unsafe condition of the city, and not to particular districts or buildings; and, second, because a committee of competent investigators have been examining into the condition of the city for some time past—

men entirely without bias—and they have made an elaborate report to the insurance companies, which is now before us; and these investigators reach the conclusion that "the city of Chicago is liable to a large conflagration at any time: first, from the inflammable material of which most of the city is constructed, and the reckless manner in which buildings are put up and light material stored; second, from its natural situation on flat ground, without protection from the gales that sweep with such violence from the prairie on the one side and the lake on the other;" and the National Board of Underwriters have, solely in consequence of these reports, decided to take no more risks in Chicago after the 1st of October, unless immediate means are taken to render the city safe. More than this, we know of policies being cancelled here now in advance of the decision of the question, to large amounts. The important thing for the people of Chicago to understand is this: Their city is peculiarly exposed to danger, owing to the frequent occurrence of high winds from the prairies, from which the place cannot be protected. Besides this, the business part of the city is surrounded by a belt of inflammable wooden buildings, which make the whole a tinder-box; and the Fire Department is a rotten piece of political machinery.

Senator Schurz has openly embarked with the People's Party of Missouri. At a ratification meeting on Friday night in St. Louis he made a brief speech, and promised a longer one shortly on national as well as on State questions. For the new organization, he disclaimed any pretence of its being the nucleus or starting-point of a new national movement, describing it as simply a popular uprising to rescue the government of Missouri from the reckless and partisan rule of rings. His own share in this movement was that of an individual citizen; it neither proceeded from him, nor had any reference to the promotion of his political interests. It had, however, his full sympathy, and would receive his active support; and though as regards the question of the national finances it might be said to "sit on the fence," he with others would make an honest effort to help it down on the right side. One of the firm resolves of the new party, according to Senator Schurz, is "that the shameless and alarming brigandage and ruffianism which so long have been permitted to disgrace the name of the State in the eyes of the civilized world, and have frightened away immigration from our borders, be at last rooted out with a strong hand."

The Maine election, which took place on Monday, was not of much importance. The State was of course carried by the Republicans, but the person chiefly interested in the result was probably Mr. Blaine, who had been promised by his friends an increased majority as a complimentary vote and a "send off" in the Presidential race. This he got, and is probably well contented. The elaborate calculation now going on in the Republican and Democratic newspapers as to the significance of the result in particular counties, in comparison with votes of previous years, will, we fear, lead to nothing decisive. The cry, "Oh! have you heard the news from Maine?" was once a soul-stirring enquiry. But it has lost its emotional value for the year from the fact that most people who have heard the news have also forgotten exactly what it was.

The South Carolina Republicans have adopted a platform and nominated Mr. D. H. Chamberlain, formerly Attorney-General, for governor. The objections to Mr. Chamberlain as a reform candidate are that, if not himself a thief, he was, under the Scott régime, badly mixed up with thieves. Nevertheless, as Moses is thus thrown over, the authorities at Washington are probably pretty well satisfied with the result. The platform adopted promises to carry out all the financial reforms which are necessary and have been promised and have been "in large measure fulfilled"; and demands the passage of the Civil-Rights Bill and the renomination of General Grant.

There are undoubtedly signs of "revival in business" in nearly all directions, and there is a considerable increase of activity in the

dealings on the Stock Exchange, which, in spite of the wickedness of brokers and speculators, is also a healthy sign—those persons who last fall thought the railroads could be cut off from the general interests of the country, and treated as a corrupt and immoral department of the national industry, having proved egregiously mistaken. Railroads cannot prosper unless the country is prospering; and that the country is recovering, the increased amount of freight carried by the railroads shows clearly, even if the increase in the amount of receipts does not as yet show it. And all this is perfectly natural and proper. The panic of last fall was not caused by losses such as we sustained during the war; nor yet to any great extent by over-investment in railroads, for the truth is that most of the capital put into the new railroads, over whose existence there has been so much lamentation, was foreign capital, the “sinking” of which does not incommode us in the least. Indeed, most of the trouble was caused by panic—that is, by vague terror; and what is now most needed to restore trade and industry to their normal condition is the disappearance of vague terror, though we do not anticipate its complete disappearance until the currency is put on a solid footing. As long as Congress pretends to control the amount of the circulating medium, we shall have more or less distrust.

If this view of the matter be correct, the labors of persons like the financial writer of the *New York Tribune*, who seems to be an able and well-informed man, in trying to prolong and intensify the prevailing distrust, may fairly be called mischievous. Although of late he has been compelled to admit that things are looking somewhat better, he does so with the utmost reluctance, and groans piteously every morning when he looks at the railroads, or the iron trade, or dry-goods trade, or grain trade, or, in fact, almost any field of activity in which there is buying and selling. He pretends sometimes to believe that we are now suffering from the effects of the war which closed in 1865; at others, that all the new railroads were made with hard-earned American money, which is now lost. One day he remarked that a friend of his, of the same gloomy temper, declared that it was as great folly to invest in railroads and stocks now as to have invested in slaves in 1860, a view which he evidently would like to take himself, but is ashamed. In fact, it would appear from his preachings that the only safe thing for an American man to do at this juncture is to sit quietly on an empty packing-box and wait. We must do him the justice to say that he does not treat us to any of the old post-panic gospel, and call for “fewer yachts and fast horses and champagne and a return to old-time simplicity and frugality”; but that he is unhappy there can be no doubt.

The main topic of interest in Europe is the condition of Spain. There is now no doubt that the Carlists have gained ground during the summer. Zabala accomplished no more than Moriones or Concha. Nearly all the positions captured in the spring are back in the enemy's hands, and the situation looks more serious than it ever did, for the plain truth is that there is nothing between Don Carlos and Madrid but a herd of raw and ill-led levies, and why he sticks so continuously in the mountains it is difficult to understand, unless he feels the want of cavalry. The other day, he took one hundred pieces of artillery and a large quantity of ammunition in Seo de Urgel, and in fact, as regards artillery, may be said to be very well off. An illustration of the supineness of the Republican army and the activity of the Carlists which has been much talked of, was furnished very recently by nine Carlists coming down to a railroad station in the heart of Zabala's position, knocking the engine-driver of a locomotive on the head, and carrying the locomotive off before the alarm was given. These and similar things, such as the easy capture of towns and villages, begin to be ascribed to the spread of treachery or to lukewarmness to the national cause among the people. A correspondent of the *London Times* describes the trade in contraband of war between Bordeaux and Nantes and the Carlist posts as enormous.

The Spanish Government has added to its political and military misfortunes the perpetration of an offence which between individuals would receive a very hard name. Our readers may remember that last year, after it had been for some time in default with the interest on the public debt, an arrangement was proposed which we described at the time, after Marshal Serrano came into power, by the Minister of Finance, Señor Echegaray, which was equivalent to what our defaulting railroads call “funding the coupons.” In other words, the bondholders were to get for their arrears something in cash on condition that they took the balance in new bonds, and for the payment of the cash two kinds of collateral were to be deposited in the Bank of England, amounting in value to \$25,000,000. The first was bonds issued by the Rio Tinto Mining Company, and the other was bonds of the purchasers of “National Property.” This proposal was formally accepted by the committee, the bondholders sitting in London, and a contract embodying it was signed on behalf of the Government by Señor Echegaray and by the representatives of the bondholders, approved by the Council of State, and ratified by the minister of state. Under it, the Rio Tinto bonds were duly deposited in the bank. There was some delay about the others; and in the interval Señor Echegaray went out of office, and was succeeded by Señor Camacho, and it began to be rumored that the latter was inclined to repudiate the contract. The bondholders, however, though uneasy, thought that as long as the Rio Tinto bonds were in hand the agreement would probably after a while be carried out. But in July, however, there arose a report that the Rio Tinto bonds would be carried off; so the wretched creditors rushed into the Court of Chancery to get an injunction restraining the Bank of England from parting with them. But Camacho was too smart for them. By the time the injunction was out the bonds were gone, and he now says he will not carry out the old contract at all, but that he will propose another more advantageous for Spain. The bondholders naturally are furious, and decline to have any new dealings with him, and appeal to Serrano as a gentleman to see justice done. We think Camacho ought to receive a “hail” or two from American “confidence operators” like Pendleton and Butler.

The more particular accounts of the proceedings of the Congress at Brussels begin to reach us, although the official report has not yet been published. It is now admitted on all hands that, as seemed likely from the outset, the scheme proved a complete failure. It was originated by Russia, with what object is not well known, but, according to the conjectures of the Continental press, with the view of assuming a sort of moral leadership among the European powers. She was represented by Baron Jomini, who was elected president of the Congress and bore the part of mover in the proceedings; General Voigts-Rhetz, the German delegate, who showed great interest in the matter, for the most part acted with him; but it was apparent, very early, that England and the small states looked on Russia and Germany with suspicion and would enter into no concerted action. There was, of course, no difficulty in coming to terms about small matters, but as regarded the main conditions of warfare there was an irreconcilable difference of opinion. Russia and Germany sought to put as much power as possible in the hands of invading armies, and paralyze as far as possible popular or unorganized resistance. For instance, Baron Jomini proposed that an invading army should be considered as a *de facto* government, which the native officials within the radius of its authority should be bound to serve and obey, and which it would therefore be treasonable to resist. But Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and Portugal all refused to accede to anything of the kind, or, in fact, to make any concessions likely to limit warfare exclusively to the operations of regular armies. The British representative preserved strict silence throughout. The whole affair, in fact, may be looked on as a curious attempt on the part of the masters of great armies to get the smaller states to agree to have conquest and occupation made easy. Unfortunately, nearly all the philanthropic tendencies of the day run in the same direction.

THE CIVIL-RIGHTS BILL.

TOWARDS the end of the last session of Congress, the Senate passed what was then usually spoken of as the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill. It did not pass the House, although Mr. Sumner had, with great solemnity, on his death-bed bequeathed it as a sort of legislative legacy to Judge Hoar; and the death of Mr. Sumner and the threatened retirement of Judge Hoar from public life bid fair to leave the bill at the next session without any authoritatively recognized champion in either House. Its passage by the Senate did not at the time attract much attention at the North, except from the regular Republican newspapers, which seemed to regard it with a languid and perfunctory interest very different from the enthusiasm which had greeted the passage of the first Civil-Rights Bill. At the South, however, its fate has been very different. The provision contained in it for the enforcement of equality between the blacks and whites in the schools, we referred to at the time as one that might "be fairly called a blow aimed at popular education," and subsequent events have shown that in the present condition of politics at the South it might have also been fairly called a blow aimed at the party which had passed it; for in the States in which the Republicans still have strength, the passage of the bill has furnished the Conservatives with a powerful argument. Everybody in the South, Republican and Democrat alike, knows that the white children will not go to school with the black children, or be forced to do so by their parents and guardians, no matter what the latest civil-rights bill may be, and that the attempt to enforce a provision for mixed schools would only result in breaking up the whole school system. What is more than this, there is no evidence that the blacks themselves are particularly ambitious of social equality, or want either mixed schools or mixed hotels or cemeteries.

The Republicans in the Southern States, therefore, have found themselves in a very awkward predicament. They wish to conciliate the blacks, and it will not do for them to desert the party. At the same time, the last thing in the world that they want is to threaten the native white Southerners. The Conservatives of course denounce the attempt to pass in the last Congress a measure subversive of the whole social order at the South, and the Republicans find it very difficult to make any reply which will not either involve them in the support of an odious bill, or make them seem to turn their backs on their party. It is not at all unnatural, therefore, though it is curious, to find the Alabama Republican Convention, held about a month since, passing resolutions not in favor of but against "social equality," declaring that the Republican party in Alabama "does not desire or seek mixed schools or mixed accommodations for the colored people," and that "no civil law can or should invade the line of social exclusion that society gave us by laws more inexorable than statute or common law."

Since the discussion now going on with regard to this subject began, it is a singular fact that the constitutional power of Congress to pass any such bill as the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill has hardly been questioned at all. It was discussed of course in Congress; but, since Congress adjourned, public discussion has been almost exclusively confined to the policy of the bill, and, from the articles in the newspapers and the stump, it would require some time and pains to discover that there were any constitutional questions involved. Yet there can be little doubt, if it were not for the fatal habit we have fallen into since the war of regarding the central Government practically above the law and the Constitution whenever the negro is concerned, that the mere suggestion of the constitutional points involved ought to have killed the bill for ever. It is plainly unconstitutional.

The bill provides that "all citizens and other persons within the jurisdiction of the United States shall be entitled to the full and equal enjoyment of the accommodations, advantages, facilities, and privileges of inns, public conveyances on land and water, theatres and other places of public amusement, and also of common-schools and public institutions of learning or benevolence supported in whole or in part by general taxation, and of cemeteries so support-

ed, and also the institutions known as agricultural colleges, . . ." without regard to race, color, or previous condition of servitude, and makes "any person" who shall deny these equal privileges liable to \$500 damages at the suit of the aggrieved person, and to conviction for a misdemeanor, with a fine of \$1,000 and imprisonment for a year; and gives exclusive jurisdiction to the United States courts in all criminal proceedings arising under the act. There are also provisions with regard to service on juries; but the important part of the bill, and that which is causing the present excitement in the South, is that we have just cited.

The bill was passed in the Senate, it is to be presumed, under the impression that the power to pass it is somewhere given or implied in the Constitution, and the only clauses that have been cited in support of such a power are from the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. The Fifteenth Amendment relates entirely to the right to vote, but the Fourteenth Amendment contains this clause (sec. 1): "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." This is all there is. The childish provision that "Congress shall have power to enforce by appropriate legislation the provisions of this article," adds nothing whatever, for Congress always has this power.

The first thing that strikes the mind with regard to the new Civil-Rights Bill, on comparing it with the Fourteenth Amendment, is that one contains a series of provisions and prohibitions directed to *persons*, while the other contains simply prohibitions against action on the part of the *States*. The Civil-Rights Bill, stripped of its technical phraseology, amounts to this—that if any white man shall turn a negro out of a hotel, or school, or car because of his color, he can be sued and prosecuted criminally in a United States court by the negro. The Amendment merely says that "no State shall make or enforce," "nor shall any State deprive," etc., etc. Nor is there the slightest difficulty in discovering what such prohibitions as these mean. The Constitution contains several of them. Article I., section 10, clause 1, provides that "no State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility."

Of these provisions, there is one which fortunately has received unanimous construction, uniform and uninterrupted, almost from the beginning of the Government, and that is, "No State shall pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts." From the days of the Dartmouth College case to the present it has always been held that the effect of this clause was to nullify and avoid any State law impairing the obligation of contracts; but it has never been supposed for a moment that it authorized Congress to pass a statute making it a penal offence for a citizen to do any act under a State law passed in violation of the obligation of contracts. For the sake of illustration, let us take the case of the charter of a college, always held to be a contract, and suppose that the educational reformers in Congress discover that the States are beginning to manage their colleges in such a way as to impair the obligations of their charters by taxing them when they have no reserved right to do so, demanding illegal qualifications of the professors, and so on. Does any one suppose that the United States could, under these circumstances, make any act done in pursuance of these State provisions a penal offence against the United States triable only in the United States courts, and could send the State authorities to jail for attempting to carry it out? The States pass laws from time to time exempting large amounts of property from execution, and the Supreme Court holds these laws unconstitutional so far as they apply to past contracts. Suppose, now, that Congress should pass a law forbidding debtors to invoke the aid of the State law and to keep or transfer the exempt property, and should make these acts penal, and give the United States courts exclusive jurisdiction

of cases arising under such a statute. No one would undertake to deny that such laws as these were usurpations, yet in principle they do not differ from the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill.

In other words, if the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill is constitutional, there is nothing that we can see to prevent Congress, on the ground of protecting the "privileges and immunities" of citizens against invasion by the States, from passing a law bringing all common-law rights within the scope of a single statute, and declaring that any one, white, black, or yellow, who suffers any wrong any where at the hands of any other person, white, black, or yellow, may treat it as a criminal offence against the United States, and have the offender fined and sent to jail for it. Supposing, for instance, that the legal rate of railroad fare in a State is three cents a mile, there is nothing in the world to prevent Mr. McCrary and his friends, next winter, from passing a law making any conductor who charges five cents amenable to this new code in the United States Courts.

The Fourteenth Amendment has twice come before the Supreme Court at Washington, and on neither of these well-known occasions was the decision of the court of such a character as to lend much encouragement to those who believe the new Amendments to have introduced very revolutionary principles as to the relations of the States to the General Government. The first of these was the New Orleans Slaughter-house cases, in which the Supreme Court directed that the new prohibitions on States did not interfere with the rights of States to manage their own internal police, although in the cases in question this regulation led to a slaughter-house monopoly in the hands of a privileged slaughtering company. In the other, Mrs. Bradwell's case, the same court held that the new Amendments did not give women the right to practise in State courts where the State laws prohibited them. In the light of these decisions, it may safely be inferred that the Supreme Court must look with extreme suspicion upon a law upsetting the domestic law of States on the subject of schools, of common carriers, of innkeepers, and substituting for them the new and strange system invented by the authors of this bill. In the interest of the negro, we trust that it may never reach the court. Deeply as we sympathize with his wrongs, we have no expectation or hope of seeing them righted by bounding on his old masters to acts of violence and lawlessness by the passage of equally violent and lawless acts of Congress. The Reconstruction period is ended, and the negro in future will occupy such a position as his industry and sobriety entitle him to. Such bills as the one we have been considering do nothing for him but turn his friends into enemies.

TYNDALL AND THE THEOLOGIAN.

THE recent address delivered by Professor Tyndall before the British Association at Belfast, in which he "confessed" that he "prolonged the vision backwards across the boundary of experimental evidence and discerned in matter the promise and potency of every quality and form of life," produced one by no means very surprising result. Dr. Watts, a professor of theology in the Presbyterian College in that city, was led by it to offer to read before the Biological Section of the Association a paper containing a plan of his own for the establishment of "peace and co-operation between Science and Religion." The paper was, as might have been expected, declined. The author then read it before a large body of religious people, who apparently liked it, and they passed him a vote of thanks. The whole religious world indeed is greatly excited against both Tyndall and Huxley for their performances on this occasion, and papers by no means in sympathy with the religious world, the *Pall Mall Gazette* for instance, are very severe on them for having "recourse to a style of oratory and disquisition more appropriate to the chapel than the lecture-room," or, in other words, for using the meetings of the Association for a sort of propagandism not much superior in method to that of theological missionaries, and thus challenging the theologians to a conflict which may make it necessary in the interest of fair play to add a theological

section to the Association. Of course, when Professor Tyndall passed "beyond the boundary of experimental evidence" and began to see with his "mind's eye" instead of with the microscope and telescope, he got into a region in which the theologian is not only more at home than he, but which theology claims as its exclusive domain, and in which ministers look on physicists as intruders.

But then, Dr. Watts's "plea for peace and co-operation between science and religion" is one of many signs that theologians are, in spite of all that has as yet been said, hardly alive to the exact nature of the attitude they occupy towards science. They evidently look upon scientific men as they look on a hostile school of theologians—as the Princeton men look on the Yale men, for instance, or the New looked on the Old School Presbyterians, or the Calvinists on the Arminians—that is, persons having a common standard of orthodoxy, but differing somewhat in their method of applying it, and who may, therefore, be induced from considerations of expediency to suppress all outward marks of divergence and work together harmoniously for the common end. All schools of theology seek the glory of God and salvation of souls, and, this being the case, differences on points of doctrine do seem trifling and capable of being put aside. It is this way of regarding the matter which has led Dr. Watts to propose an alliance between religion and science, and which produces the arguments one sometimes sees, in defence of Christianity against Positivism, drawn from a consideration of the services which Christianity has rendered to the race, and of the gloomy and desolate condition in which its disappearance would leave the world. Tyndall and Huxley do not, however, occupy the position of religious prophets or fathers. They preside over no church or other organization. They have no power or authority to draft any creed or articles which will bind anybody else, or which would have any claims on anybody's reverence or adhesion. No person, in short, is authorized to bring science into an alliance with religion or with anything else. Such "peace and co-operation" as Dr. Watts proposed would be peace and co-operation between him and Professor Tyndall, or between the theologians and the British Association, but "peace and co-operation between science and religion" is a term which carries absurdity on its face. Science is simply a body of facts which lead people familiar with them to infer the existence of certain laws. How can it, therefore, be either at peace or war with anybody or co-operate with anybody? What Professor Tyndall might promise would be either not to discover any more facts, or to discover only certain classes of facts, or to draw no inferences from facts which would be unfavorable to Dr. Watts's theory of the universe; but the only result of this would be that Tyndall would lose his place as a scientific man, and others would go on discovering the facts and drawing the inferences.

In like manner, the supposition that Christianity can be defended against Positivism on grounds of expediency implies a singular conception of the mental operations of those persons who are affected by Positivist theories, and indeed, we might add, of the thinking world generally. No man believes in a religion simply because he thinks it useful, and therefore no man's real adhesion to the Christian creed can be secured by showing him how human happiness would suffer by its extinction. This argument, if it had any weight at all, would only induce persons either to pretend to be Christians when they were not, or to refrain from assailing Christianity, or to avoid all enquiries which might possibly lead to sceptical conclusions. It is, therefore, perhaps a good argument to address to believers, because it may induce them to suppress doubts and avoid lines of thought or social relations likely to beget doubt; but it is an utterly futile argument to address to those who have already lost their faith. Men believe because they are convinced; it is not in their power to believe from motives of prudence or from public spirit.

However, the complaints of the theologians excited by Professor Tyndall's last utterances are not wholly unreasonable. Science has done nothing hitherto to give it any authority in the region of the unseen. "Beyond the boundary of experimental evidence" one

man's vision is about as good as another's. It is interesting to know that Professor Tyndall there "discerns in matter the potency and promise of every quality and form of life," but only because he is a distinguished man, who gives much thought to this class of subjects and occupies a very prominent place in the public eye. As a basis for belief of any kind, his vision is of no more value than that of the Archbishop of Canterbury, who would probably in that region discern the promise and potency of every form of life in a supreme and creative intelligence. Scientific men are continually pushing back the limits of our knowledge of the material universe. They have during the last eighty years made an enormous addition to the sum of that knowledge, but they have not, since Democritus, taken away one hair's-breadth from the Mystery which lies behind. In fact, their labors have in many ways deepened this Mystery. We can appeal confidently to any candid man to say, for instance, whether Darwin's theory of the origin of life and the evolution of species does not make this globe and its inhabitants a problem vastly darker and more inscrutable than the Mosaic account of the creation. Take, again, the light thrown on the constitution of the sun by the spectroscope; it is a marvellous addition to our knowledge of our environment, but then, does it not make our ignorance as to the origin of the sun seem deeper? No scientific man pretends that any success in discovery will ever lead the human mind beyond the resolution of the number of laws which now seem to govern phenomena, into a smaller number; but if we reached the limit of the possible in that direction to-morrow, we should be as far from the secret of the universe as ever. When we have all got to the blank wall which everybody admits lies at the boundary of experimental evidence, the philosopher will know no more about what lies beyond than the peasant, though the peasant will probably do then what he does now—people it with the creatures of his imagination. If a philosopher in our day likes to anticipate that period, and hazards the conjecture that matter lies beyond, he is welcome to his guess, but it ought to be understood that it is only a guess.

The danger to society from the men of science does not, we imagine, lie in the direction in which the theologians look for it. We do not think they need feel particularly troubled by Professor Tyndall's speculations as to the origin of things, for these speculations are very old, and have, after all, only a remote connection with human affairs. But there are signs both in his and Professor Huxley's methods of popularizing science, and in those of a good many of their followers, that we may fear the growth of something in the nature of a scientific priesthood, who, tempted by the great facilities for addressing the public which our age affords, and to which nearly every other profession has fallen a victim, will no longer confine themselves to their laboratories and museums and scientific journals, but serve as "ministers of nature" before great crowds of persons, for the most part of small knowledge and limited capacity, on whom their hints, suggestions, and denunciations will have a dangerously stimulating effect, particularly as the contempt of scientific men for what is called "literature"—that is, the recorded experience of the human race and the recorded expression of human feelings—grows every year stronger, and exerts more and more influence on the masses. The number of dabblers in science—of persons with a slight smattering of chemistry, geology, botany, and so on—too, promises to be largely increased for some time to come by the arrangements of one sort or another made by colleges and schools for scientific education; and though there is reason to expect from this education a considerable improvement in knowledge of the art of reasoning, there is also reason to fear a considerable increase of dogmatic temper, of eagerness for experimentation in all fields, and of scorn for the experience of persons who have never worked in the laboratory or done any deep-sea dredging. Now, whatever views we may hold as to the value of science in general and in the long run to the human race, and in particular its value for purposes of legislation and social economy, which we are far from denying, there is some risk that lectures like Prof. Huxley's

at Belfast, dressed up for promiscuous crowds, and produced with the polite scorn of infallibility, in which the destruction of moral responsibility is broadly hinted at as one of the probable results of researches in biology, will do great mischief. For what does it matter, or rather ought it to matter, for social purposes, in what part of a man's system his conscience lies, or whether pressure on a particular portion of the brain may convert him into a thief, when we know, as of experience, that the establishment of good courts and police turns a robbers' den into a hive of peaceful industry, and when we see the wonders which discipline works in an ignorant crowd? When we read that Macdonald started across the plain at Wagram with 10,000 men, and that his column was, during his awful march, so torn with shot and shell that only 1,500 remained to break the Austrian line, but that none wavered, we feel that there are secrets in the composition of human character which Biology is as yet far from being able to explain; and we wish that she would if possible reserve for scientific men any such odds and ends of discovery as she may make, pending the preparation of a complete solution of the problem with which she concerns herself.

Notes.

NOYES, HOLMES & CO. announce for publication next month, 'Sermons and Songs of the Christian Life,' by Rev. E. H. Sears, D.D.; 'The Reasonableness and Efficacy of Prayer,' by Rev. Newman Hall, D.D.; and new editions of Dr. Thomas Hill's 'The Stars and the Earth' and Dr. Henry M. Dexter's 'Congregationalism.'—We have received the third number of *El Ateneo*, a monthly Spanish-American magazine of light literature, published in this city at 31 Park Row. It is well printed and profusely illustrated with woodcuts.—Part 21 of Stieler's 'Hand-Atlas' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) contains maps of France and Switzerland, Southwestern Russia and Turkey, and, in one sheet, South America, which has already been issued in two sheets.—The Bishop of Lincoln's remarks on cremation, on which we lately commented, are said to have been misreported. A correspondent of the *John Bull*, who heard the sermon in which they occurred, says the Bishop was speaking of the probable effects of cremation in weakening the popular faith in the resurrection, not as logically impairing the doctrine itself among "persons of sound and strong belief."—A few additional fall announcements by our publishers deserve mention: 'Campaigning on the Oxus, and the Fall of Khiva,' by J. A. MacGahan (Harper & Brothers); 'Democracy and Monarchy in France,' by C. K. Adams; Gautier's 'Tour in Russia'; selections from Sainte-Beuve's 'Causeries du Lundi,' translated by W. F. Rae; 'Far from the Madding Crowd' (Henry Holt & Co.); 'The Common Frog,' by St. George Mivart; and 'Ismailia,' the narrative of the last expedition of Samuel Baker (Macmillan & Co.) We shall also have this season, through John Murray, the 'Last Journals' of Dr. Livingstone. To the foregoing must be added: 'The Mistress of the Manse,' a narrative poem by Dr. J. G. Holland; 'Notes of a Journey in 1873 in the Russian Province of Turkestan,' by Eugene Schuyler (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.); 'History of the United States Marine Corps,' by M. Almy Aldrich; 'Cattle—their Management and Breeding,' by Dr. Geo. B. Loring; 'The Cellar Door Club, and Other Stories,' by Edward Eggleston (Henry L. Shepard & Co.)

—The Massachusetts Historical Society will shortly be put in possession of a full-length portrait of Washington, copied after an original painting in the private gallery of Lord Albemarle. A letter from Mr. Robert C. Winthrop to the vice-president of the society states the circumstances under which this copy was obtained, and in regard to the original says that it was intended for the Stadtholder in 1780, but being entrusted to Laurens, then on his way to The Hague as minister plenipotentiary, it shared his fate when he was captured by Captain Keppel of the British Navy. Keppel gave the portrait to his uncle, Admiral Lord Keppel, and it has ever since been preserved at Quidenham Park, Norfolk, the seat of the Earl of Albemarle, the present head of the Keppel family. It is by an unknown artist, whose work was none of the best, and it derives its main interest, to use Mr. Winthrop's words, "from the fate which befell it; from the period of Washington's life at which it was taken; and from the broad blue ribbon which is so conspicuous a feature of his costume." This ribbon was already known, from Washington's Orderly Book at Cambridge, in 1775, to have been prescribed as the distinctive designation of the commander-in-chief, who was an entire stranger to his troops on his arrival. It is fitting, therefore, that so peculiarly a Massachusetts portrait of Washington should be preserved by the Massachu-

setts Historical Society, at least in fac-simile, for the making of which photography has been employed with great success.

—In the September number of *Blackwood's*, which once would have been a curious place for it, appears the latest of the many literary memorials of Mr. Sumner. It is in the form of a poem of forty-one quatrains by Mr. W. W. Story, an American writer best known to his countrymen as a sculptor, but known to some of them also as a practitioner of others of the fine arts, including poetry. One might say that there is an appropriateness in this latest of the Sumner testimonials in that it occupies a sort of vanishing boundary-line between a particular grief and the region of the general elegiacs. More than nine-tenths of it, in fact, might be used in memory of any one who had died regretted by all who knew him, and—which is the bad thing—might be so used because it has no closeness of application to any one or anything. It is, in short, an elegiac poem in memory of a personal friend, in which there is little traceable sign of personal grief and no recognizable view of the friend's personality, but all is vaguely declamatory on accustomed texts. For this and other reasons the poem takes its place among the clever, well-filed pieces of verse, ambitious, but made of stuff not stern enough, an examination of which has always left Mr. Story a step or two short of an excellent place. The poem before us ventures ambitiously to suggest for itself a very severe and high standard; for this time the poet sought to be initiated in the metre and in the line of thought is Omar Khayyam, as he appears in the impressive and really captivating version of the English translator. To some minds, our later poet will seem to strike much the same key of thought as his Persian predecessor: Death is inevitable and a mystery; beyond it is we know not what; it is to be mourned; Love cannot hold back its victims. But the difference between the new poem and the one which it calls to mind is mainly the difference between thoughts and sentiments common and of universal interest and, on the other hand, thoughts and sentiments common too and also of universal interest, but the expression of which must usually be platitudinarian, and is so here. Our poet laments the mystery of death in terms which will be recognized as commonplaceness itself; the Persian deals with problems equally unevadable, but of a dignity (as being eternally sure of human contemplation and eternally sure of baffling its unaided strength) which raises them to a level far different from that on which we find the ordinary meditations on death and the departure of friends. The older writer also reveals a majestic turn of mind and a profundity of sentiment which find proper expression in his verse, over which he is a master with a most skilful and various hand, and in his powerful diction. It is to be regretted that among the earliest imitations of his metre, as rendered by his remarkable English admirer and follower, there should be verses so unmusical as these and a diction so bald. There is between the poems one difference of which we have not spoken, but it relates primarily to the differing philosophy of the two writers. Omar is to the last eyeing the inscrutable; Mr. Story teaches that "since nothing we can know" it is best that at least we dream of happiness and endless progress in the other world, if another there be.

—The several Associations for the Advancement of Science held their meetings nearly at the same time this year in England, France, and the United States; and the presidential addresses in all three were by physicists (the chemist is now strictly a physicist), and all led up—directly or incidentally—to that ultimate question of what is to be thought about the cause of things. Mr. Tyndall's now famous "confession" that he feels bound to discern in matter "the promise and potency of every form and quality of life," has been held (seemingly with good reason) tantamount to the proposition that, so far as we can ever know or rightly think, "matter is the final cause." But it is to be noted that matter, under Tyndall's view, means matter plus force. So that, after all, his deliverance may amount to only this, that the potentiality of life and of the forms endowed with it is in Nature, which "is seen to do all things without the meddling of the gods," as his old friend Lucretius affirms and the science of the day is nearly ready to admit. The question how matter, or (as some would rather say) the system of things, came to have such "promise and potency," may still be asked, although Tyndall thinks it must ever be asked in vain. He seems even to imply that the question is illegitimate. With complete consistency, and a frankness that ought not to be blamed, he warns the religious world off the domain, not of natural science merely, but of knowledge altogether, allowing it instead free range over that of the emotions. What was once declared of the Samaritans, "Ye worship ye know not what," he extends to the human kind, with the further declaration that, from the very nature of things, it cannot be otherwise. President Wurtz, of the French Association, took for his theme "The Atomic Theory in the General System of the World." At this writing, all we know of his address is contained in a short extract, in which, while equally

declaring the inscrutability of primary causes, he implies that somewhat may be inferred about them nevertheless. "They lie within a domain which man's intellect will ever strive to enter and search. So is man constituted, and such he will ever continue. . . . *Excelsior!* He will strive onward and upward, and in his innate instinctive conviction that things have not within themselves their *raison d'être*, their foundation and origin, he is gradually led to subordinate them to a primary cause, a unique and universal God."

—It is of this French Association, barely two years old, that Professor Lovering speaks, at the close of his own thoughtful address, as having already displayed a vitality and a prosperity which our own Association, in its opening manhood, has not yet acquired. Yet, if we may judge of the character of our American Association by that of its retiring President's address, now just printed, it is well performing its part. The thoroughness of its exposition of the principal problems in physical science, and of the means of attacking them, is equalled and relieved by its admirable lucidity. Our present reference to it must be restricted to a single paragraph, pertinent to the high question before us:

"In the phraseology of our mechanics we define matter and force as if they had an independent existence. But we have no conception of inert matter or of disembodied force. All we know of matter is its pressure and its motion. The old atom had only potential energy; the energy of its substitute, the molecule, is partly potential and partly kinetic. If it could be shown that all the phenomena displayed in the physical world were simply transmutations of the original energy existing in the molecules, physical science would be satisfied. Where physical science ends, natural philosophy, which is not wholly exploded from our vocabulary, begins. Natural philosophy can give no account of energy when disconnected with an ever-present intelligence and will. In Herschel's beautiful dialogue on atoms, after one of the speakers had explained all the wonderful exhibitions of nature as the work of natural forces, Hermione replies: 'Wonderful, indeed! Anyhow, they must have not only good memories but astonishing presence of mind, to be always ready to act, and always to act, without mistake, according to the primary laws of their being, in every complication that occurs.' And elsewhere, 'Action, without will or effort, is to us, constituted as we are, unrealizable, unknowable, inconceivable.' The monads of Leibnitz and the demons of Maxwell express in words the personality implied in every manifestation of force."

—Those who use tobacco and defend the use of it have now become so numerous that it requires some courage to make a stand on the other side. Especially is this the case in Europe, which, according to Professor Mantegazza, is fast being turned into a cigar divan, so that it is daily becoming more difficult for a man of average strength of mind to assert his liberty to refrain from tobacco if he goes into society at all. In other words, the weed is fast acquiring in social intercourse—for men at least—the same symbolic value which has from the earliest ages attached to wine, so that the "I never smoke" of the American teetotaler threatens to excite the same incredulity and to give the same offence as his "I never drink." In this state of things, Dr. Drysdale, senior physician to the Metropolitan Free Hospital, and physician to the North London Consumption Hospital, is of opinion that it is time for such practitioners of the healing art as have anything to say about tobacco to speak out. Speak out he does, accordingly, in a paper read before the British Medical Association at Norwich in August. To sum up his indictment against tobacco, he charged it with causing blindness, palpitation of the heart, paralysis, diarrhoea, and diseases of the teeth and the mucous membrane of the mouth and tongue. It might, he allowed, be used for the treatment of asthma, but he could not, as a leading medical journal had recently done, recommend it as a necessary for British troops in foreign service, thus classing it with the hygienic remedies useful in malarious and tropical districts; and to admit tobacco smoking, chewing, and snuffing into the list of the luxuries of a refined and wealthy age was, in his opinion, a violation of the laws of public hygiene. "Were the modern Turks or Germans," he remarked, "to go on smoking from morning till night as they do, and consuming Virginia tobacco or cavendish as we do in England, they would indeed present a deplorable spectacle of public want of stamina. Fortunately, however, German and Turkish tobacco is almost devoid of noxious properties."

—Every one is familiar with the rather coarse satire in which Swift represents Gulliver as asking the Laputan ghost-compeller to exhibit to him the ancestral lines of the various royal houses of Europe, when, instead of gazing upon a procession of awe-inspiring monarchs, he sees with surprise the motley spectral groups of simpering pages, rough swashbucklers, jolly monks, and vulgar grooms who accompany the royal mothers of the successive sovereigns. The idea is one so natural to a mind like Swift's that it would occur to few to doubt its originality; and yet there is a much older story which seems evidently to be the source from which he derived it. This is related in the 'Magica, seu Mirabilia Historiarum de Spectris et Apparitionibus Spirituum, etc.,' published by Henningus Grosius in 1597 for the edification of theologians and jurists. He quotes from the 'Proverbia Germanica'

of Johannes Agricola, as a well-authenticated fact, that a certain Johannes Teutoniens, the illegitimate son of a priest, so distinguished himself by his learning that he obtained a canonry in the Chapter of Halberstadt, in spite of the custom which reserved such preferment for the legitimate scions of noble houses. Naturally resenting this intrusion, the other canons shunned him. To rebuke their pride, he invited them to a splendid banquet, during which he took occasion to ask them whether they desired to see their fathers, and, on their eagerly assenting, he proceeded to evoke by magic the paternal spectres. The result was a procession of miserable figures—cooks, hostlers, peasants, and others, whose faces the guests acknowledged having seen in their fathers' houses. Then Johann summoned his own father, who appeared in the guise of a canon of agreeable rotundity, and his colleagues departed sadder and wiser men, who ceased thenceforth to reproach him with his lack of nobility. Perhaps some one better versed than we in folk-lore may be able to trace this story to a higher source of Aryan parentage; but it seems to us that Swift most probably borrowed the idea from Grosius or Agricola. This same Johann gave another specimen of his power by celebrating Mass on Christmas Eve of 1771 in three places, Halberstadt, Mainz, and Köln.

—The death of M. Guizot, which had been prematurely announced, took place on Sunday, the 13th inst., when he had nearly completed his eighty-seventh year. Like Thiers, he was a native of the South of France, having been born at Nîmes, Oct. 4, 1787. His father was a lawyer of ability, who was taken off in the Terror, and this led to the widow's retiring to Geneva, where her son received his education. His literary career began early and in the field of history, and in 1812 he was appointed professor of modern history at the Sorbonne. The latest work on which he was engaged was a History of France for his grandchildren. In politics, his first manifestation was his pamphlet on representative government in 1816, his first active appearance in 1830, when he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, and helped pave the way for Louis Philippe, who made him Minister of the Interior. He held this post but a few months. For nearly four years (1832-36) he was Minister of Public Instruction, being displaced by Thiers, with whom, however, two years later he formed a coalition. From 1840 till the Revolution of 1848 he was Prime Minister. Guizot owes his principal political distinction to his having faithfully represented the bourgeois element in French society, which governed France from the Restoration till 1848. Under the military régime which followed close on the excesses of the First Revolution, the literary and 'shopkeeper class failed to reap any of the fruits of the overthrow of the noblesse, and it was not until 1815 that they saw the long-wished-for consummation—"la carrière ouverte aux talents." M. Guizot came to the front rapidly as one of the most promising men of the new generation, and his rise and that of Thiers were among the signs of the times which inspired so much confidence in the future of France among even the shrewdest outsiders. The appearance of literary men in the foremost rank of politicians filled the souls of the middle-class all over Europe with joy and admiration. This class, too, could hardly have had a better representative than Guizot. His talents were striking and his morals pure to the point of austerity, and he had just the amount of liberalism the times called for. People in 1815 had not learned to expect much. Peace, economy, and the opening of high office to all without distinction of birth, were as much as they looked for. The three days of 1830 completed the triumph of the bourgeoisie and assured it, and brought M. Guizot into the front rank. He made a distinct failure as a diplomatist in England in 1840, where, in spite of the cordial greeting he received from society as a distinguished literary man, he was outwitted by the Ministry in the Syrian affair, but after his return home he resumed his old eminence both in the confidence of the King and in the Chamber. The coldness of his temper, the rigid Calvinism of his religious opinions, and the Whiggishness of his liberalism, however, made it impossible for him to see the necessity of any change in the political arrangements of 1830, and made him insensible to the corruption and feebleness of the Chamber, in which he was all-powerful. His use of the Government patronage, too, was only made pardonable by reference to his supreme confidence in the rectitude of his aims and his sense of their overwhelming importance. The Revolution of 1848 was generally considered to have wrought the ruin of his reputation as a politician, and he returned, though doubtless with reluctance—for he afterwards unsuccessfully sought election to the National Assembly—to his literary labors in his quiet home in Normandy. These were mostly historical, and his pen was down to the last very prolific. His fame as a writer, however, principally rests on the 'Lectures on the History of Civilization,' though everything he wrote was widely read. His religious feeling grew stronger as he grew older, and even, stern Protestant as he was, carried him into sympathy with the Pope in his conflict with the King of Italy. His last appearance as a polemical writer was

in a controversy with Paul Janet, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, about three years ago, in which he stoutly defended the story of the fall of Adam and its theological consequences.

—A private dinner in commemoration of the battle of Wörth (August 6) was attended by Bismarck among others. There were no toasts, but the chief personage, who had imposed this as a condition of his being present, is said to have indulged his fondness for anecdote, and to have favored the company with a parallel between his meeting Napoleon at Sedan and the last time they had previously been together at St. Cloud, on occasion of Bismarck's return to Germany. In the midst of the then leave-taking, the minds of both being filled with forebodings of an approaching catastrophe, when the usual commonplaces concerning the journey had been exchanged, a painful silence ensued, which was broken only by turning the conversation upon—the weather. At Sedan, the Prince had ridden forward to meet the Emperor, who was riding towards him in a simple calash, and who, on seeing him, made the military salute, to which Bismarck hastened to respond, his arm brushing as he did so the hilt of his revolver in his breast-pocket, and causing Napoleon to turn as white as chalk. They alighted at the latter's request, that he might avoid public insult, at the house of a weaver, and, on being seated, the first question which Bismarck addressed him was whether peace could now be concluded. To this Napoleon replied that that depended on the Government at Paris. Again there came a painful pause in the conversation, and again it was broken by adverting to the weather. The circle was complete; but the forebodings of St. Cloud had given way to the afterthoughts of Sedan.

—The progress of native journalism in China is a noteworthy sign of the times. The success which has attended such seemingly risky enterprises as the *Shun Pao* and the *Chinese Mail* at the ports of Shanghai and Hongkong, to say nothing of their smaller imitators, has induced native capitalists to come forward with a view of still further meeting the unexpected demand which has arisen in Chinese circles for "news." The origin of the latest of these ventures is somewhat curious. It appears that the *Shun Pao* wrote very strongly in favor of a Cantonese actor, who, for the heinous crime of marrying a woman of respectable position in life (actors belong to one of the four degrees forbidden to compete in the examinations), was dragged before the Che-Hien, and, after being unmercifully flogged and otherwise tortured, was sentenced to a long imprisonment. The Cantonese, desirous of avenging themselves on the *Shun Pao*, at first threatened violence, and gravely debated the feasibility of sacking the office and practising upon the bodies of the editor and his compositors a series of those experimental tortures for which the Chinese are so unpleasantly distinguished. Happily, however, a wise man suggested that in place of using violence, the *Shun Pao* should be fought with its own weapons. The idea was received with acclamation, the capital was forthcoming in a trice, and, an editor and staff having been procured, the new paper was started with a guarantee of its expenses for a considerable term. Another recent incident at Hongkong proves in a different way that the Chinese are becoming sensible of the power and utility of journalism. Mr. Denny, the editor of the *China Mail*, has been giving the provincial authorities of South China a somewhat rude shock. They have only lately discovered that the foreign press has for some years been in the habit of publishing translations of native official documents, a knowledge of whose contents was innocently supposed to be confined to the ranks of the Yamen officials. A short time since the journal in question published the foreign text of a confidential despatch from the Tsung-li-Yamen (signed by Prince Kung) to the Viceroy of the two Keang. In the innocence of his heart, the latter official deputed a subordinate to call at the *China Mail* office, and request the name of the native gentleman who furnished the Chinese text—this, too, in a manner which evidently showed that a refusal of the request was not even thought possible. It is needless to say that the intelligent native had to take his leave without the required information. As this is the first instance in the history of journalism in China in which the mandarin policy of indifference has been exchanged for an exhibition of interest, it is not without its significance.

SCHWEINFURTH'S TRAVELS IN AFRICA.*

THE interest in African travel has received a remarkable stimulus within the past ten or fifteen years from a variety of circumstances. One is the exhaustion of other fields of exploration, which has turned the most adventurous spirits towards this one, and has given us the explorations of Grant, Speke, Baker, Rohlf, and Schweinfurth. Livingstone's travels grew, not unnaturally, out of his missionary labors; but the heroism with which

* 'The Heart of Africa. Three Years' Travels and Adventures in the Unexplored Regions of Central Africa, from 1868 to 1871. By Dr. Georg Schweinfurth. Translated by Ellen E. Frewer, with an Introduction by Winwood Reade.' New York: Harper & Brothers, 1874.

they were prosecuted begot an enthusiasm about African discovery of which we have yet to see the full results. Simultaneously with this growth of curiosity about Africa, there has been a remarkable accession to the means of gratifying it, as Mr. Winwood Reade has pointed out in the introduction to the volumes before us, in the entrance of Egypt into the class of civilized powers, and the extension of her territory south of the Nubian desert—the result of this being that a traveller about to penetrate into savage Africa, begins his journey many degrees south of the point at which he formerly took leave of civilization, and begins it with considerably greater resources. Though last, not least, we must mention the value which the discussions raised by the speculations of Darwin, Huxley, Tylor, and others have given to the details of savage life, which in all other parts of the globe are fast vanishing from our view, and which in the hands of competent investigators have lately been made to throw so much light on the origin of civilization and of many of the most perplexing social phenomena of our own day.

Dr. Schweinfurth differs from his recent predecessors in being an enthusiastic botanist, and consequently more interested in the African flora than in the fauna, but it is right to say that his book would, for popular use, have been greatly improved by the relegation of all the botanical matter to an appendix, and a cheaper and smaller edition, with this matter entirely omitted, would perhaps have been better still. He differs from them, too, as a scientific man might be expected to differ, in having, although a good shot, only a small amount of taste for hunting, and shows an amount of respect for the natives which is rather uncommon among African travellers. In fact, we could hardly describe him better than by saying that in his tastes and his philosophy he is the antipodes of Baker. Dr. Schweinfurth's explorations led him literally into "the heart of Africa," and into a region between 3° and 10° north latitude, which no previous traveller had touched. East of it, Baker had pushed down along the Nile to Lake Victoria Nyanza in 1863-4-5, and Burton and Speke had come up over the same route from Zanzibar in 1857-8. West and south of it, M. du Chaillu had made considerable explorations in 1863-4-5, starting from the Fernand Vas River, on the Atlantic coast. North of it, Dr. Barth had made great explorations from 1850-55, crossing the Desert to and from Tripoli; while, south and east of it, Livingstone had been wandering for years. Dr. Schweinfurth's means of locomotion, too, were peculiar, as he relied very little on his own resources, having put himself under the protection of a Nubian Mussulman trader making his periodical visit with the customary armed force to his "seribas," or factories, as such establishments used to be called before European nations began to colonize; and nothing in the book is more interesting than the Doctor's account of the relations of these traders to the Central African tribes. They are mostly Mussulmans and Nubians—a term which describes rather the region from which a man comes than the race to which he belongs, for the Nubian population is a great mixture of races. They traffic in ivory, slaves, and anything that is portable and seems likely to prove profitable, and are generally shrewd, pushing fellows, who enlist a few hundred men, much as the East India Company did for military service, in expeditions to the south. The troops are armed with indifferent muskets, and tramp along in single file, with the Turkish flag borne at the head of the column, followed by a body of negro bearers, who carry the supplies on their heads and shoulders, and bring back the goods found at factories and purchased or plundered on the way. Each trader, or company of traders, has his "seribas" at various points down in the interior, in which he leaves a small permanent garrison, protected by a stockade, and surrounded by a farm; and this garrison occupies itself in collecting ivory and other commodities, and raising such agricultural products as are necessary for its own subsistence. Every year or two the proprietor comes along with his little army, relieves the guard, and puts affairs in order, settles by fighting or negotiation any quarrels which may have sprung up with the neighboring chiefs, and makes his way back to the market in the north at Khartoum or elsewhere. His troops are by no means brave or well disciplined or numerous, and yet they march courageously all through the interior, overawing the native potentates, and plundering or kidnapping or making treaties or exchanging presents, as may seem most expedient. This military superiority is entirely due to the exclusive possession of firearms. Should the tribes in the interior become possessed of them, the whole business would be broken up, as no Nubian could be induced to enlist for service against them. The paths lie for the most part through thickets and forests, and would be utterly impassable by such troops in the presence of an enemy armed with muskets, as the British expedition against the Ashantees showed clearly. Dr. Schweinfurth gives one or two illustrations of the utter demoralization wrought among the Nubians by hearing that the tribe whose territory they were expected to traverse had begun to use powder and ball. The party with which he travelled was commanded by a man of apparently unusual morality and humanity, who on the whole traded honestly, and only

fought in self-defence; but he tells enough of the doings of others to show what a shocking plague to the natives these expeditions are, how much burning, slaughtering, slave-catching, and cattle-lifting they do, and what a barbarizing influence they must exercise on African life; for the contact of savages with the dark side of civilization does undoubtedly, as we have seen in the case of our own Indians, degrade even them. Nothing, or next to nothing, can be done for the moral or material regeneration of Northern and Central Africa until the natives are delivered from the plague of Mussulman traders, and Lieutenant Cameron's suggestion, the pushing of cheap railroads into the interior from the coast, seems to be perhaps the best yet made on this point. Here would be a field in which even the sternest moralist would hardly object to seeing any number of *Crédit Mobilier* and *Construction Companies* at work, and for the successful cultivation of which the issue of bonds at almost any rate would be justifiable. On many routes such lines would unquestionably pay, and it would be a good while before the Niam-Niam or Monbutto Grangers began to groan under the tyranny of "the bloated bondholders" and "the heartless speculators."

Dr. Schweinfurth's pictures of life and manners in the heart of Africa—apart from the disorder and contamination wrought by the Mussulmans of the North—disorder and contamination which the extension of the Egyptian frontier has thus far aggravated rather than diminished—are, on the whole, exceedingly pleasing and even hopeful. They show an amount of progress in the arts among the population of the interior which makes its failure to advance farther almost as puzzling a problem as the immobility of the Chinese. We suppose no right-minded man, who has a proper sense of his own relation to the past and future, ever visits an ethnological museum and examines the weapons and tools with which the beginnings of our own civilization were wrought out, with which the rude forefathers of the Western World fought their hard fight with the terrible forces of inclement nature, without feelings closely allied to pity and admiration. How ingenious many of their devices were! How much patience and persistence they put into them, those poor fellows, with neither science, nor art, nor school, nor college, nor patent-office behind them! All over Africa we find in actual existence the very processes and implements for traces of which our own scientific men dig so laboriously, and which they treasure so carefully; and there also we find the beliefs and customs, hopes and fears and prejudices, of the early times, which, as recent investigations have shown, have left such deep marks on the manners, theology, metaphysics, and language of our own time. The tribes are numerous, but the type of culture is nearly the same for all.

"In the labyrinth of African culture," says Dr. Schweinfurth, "it is very difficult to disentangle the hundred threads which lead up to the centre from which they have all been unwound. Not a custom, not a superstition is found in one part which is not more or less accurately repeated in another; not one contrivance of design, not one weapon of war, exists of which it can be declared that it is exclusive property of any one race. From north to south, and from sea to sea, in some form or other, every invention is sure to be repeated; it is 'the thing that has been.' The creative hand of Nature alone produces what is new. If we could at once grasp and set before our minds facts that are known (whether as regards language, race, culture, history, or development) of that vast region of the world which is comprehended in the name of Africa, we should have before us the witness of an intermingling of races which is beyond all precedent; and yet, bewildering as the prospect would appear, it remains a fact, not to be gainsaid, that it is impossible for any one to survey the country as a whole without perceiving that high above the multitude of individual differences there is throned a principle of unity which embraces well-nigh all the population."

It would be possible to make a dozen articles filled with curiosities of African culture taken from Dr. Schweinfurth's descriptions of the four leading races whose territory he traversed, the Dinkas, Bongos, Niam-Niams, and Monbuttoos. The Dinkas make their hair straight by much combing, and give it a reddish tinge by continual washing with cow urine and the application for a fortnight of a pomade composed of dung and ashes. They consider it as effeminate and improper for a man to wear any clothing whatever as we should consider it for him to appear in petticoats. A clothed man is called contemptuously "a woman." Their cookery is very nice; they eat with more decorum than either the Turks or Arabs; eating separately and passing dishes from one to the other like Europeans. They took to knives and forks at Dr. Schweinfurth's table as if they had been bred to them. They are very fastidious, too, in the selection of their articles of diet. They are great smokers and enthusiastic lovers, almost worshippers indeed, of their cattle, the breeding of which is their principal occupation. The Dyoots, a neighboring tribe, salute each other by mutual spitting. They are great iron-workers; they fish and hunt and breed cattle; but their principal object of ambition is the possession of a well-stocked poultry-yard and a good dog. The women do all the work in the fields as well as the work of the house. Love of children and reverence for age are more strongly developed in this tribe than in any other in Central Africa. All the tribes cultivate and love tobacco, and call it by some modification of the American name, showing

that it is of foreign origin. The common tobacco and the Virginian are the two varieties cultivated, and it will be disheartening to the anti-smokers to hear that "no production more than this has trampled over every obstacle, and that even Africa has allowed Virginian tobacco to penetrate to its very centre," though it is doubtful whether the common tobacco, the *nicotiana rustica*, is not of native origin. All the tribes have elaborate smoking contrivances, and many chew.

The Bongos live on a red ferruginous soil and are very red themselves. Their territory produces great quantities of mushrooms, of which they make sauce like our catsup; they are tremendous smokers and chewers, make the tobacco up in cakes like our "cavendish," and carry half-chewed quids behind their ear, like a clerk's pen. They are disgusting feeders, with a great love of garbage and vermin. They are expert iron-workers. With their rude bellows and a hammer which is oftener than not a round ball of pebble-stone, an anvil of gneiss or granite, and a pair of tongs composed of a split stick of greenwood, "they contrive to fabricate articles which would bear comparison with the productions of an English smith." They are enthusiastic lovers of music, which is mainly imitative. The women are good potters and good tanners—tan having found its way in through the Nubians. The men wear a skin or two, but the women nothing but a wisp of grass plucked in the woods every morning. Wives are purchased, and no child not at the breast is allowed to sleep in the same hut with its parents—a custom which some European and American Bongos would do well to imitate. The old people are suspected of witchcraft. The insane are treated by dipping in a river, and persons suffering from "general debility" are made to eat the flesh of Gallukoo, which we take to be a bird, with a detestable flavor. The Mittoo wear iron ornaments with lavish profusion as a sign of wealth, just as New York women wear gold and jewels.

The Niam-Niams, who are the leading race of Central Africa, tall, well-formed, intelligent, warlike, live under a government less despotic than the other tribes. Their chiefs are really limited monarchs, whose revenue consists in a royalty on ivory and half the meat of all elephants killed. The women are much more shy and retiring than the Bongo or Mittoo women, and avoid male strangers, and are the objects of unprecedented devotion on the part of their husbands. The Nubians turn this affection to account in their raids. If they capture a Niam-Niam woman they know that they can extract anything from the husband by way of ransom. But they are cannibals, and when people find themselves growing fat amongst them their lives are filled with anxiety. Fore and hind quarters of man may be seen hanging up in their huts and on the adjacent trees. They brew and drink enormous quantities of beer, made from a cereal known as "raggi" in India. The authority of the chief is absolute, but they skulk in battle. The war-cry of the tribe is "Meat! meat!" indicating the fate that awaits the conquered enemy. They are good iron-workers, wood-carvers, basket-makers, and potters. They salute by hand-shaking, in such a way as to make the joints of the two middle fingers crack. They are proud of large families, and punish adultery with death. They are very fond of music, and play on a kind of harp, and have wandering minstrels, who improvise; their language contains no equivalent for a god or prayer. They practise divination through a piece of board, very like the article called "planchette" so much in use a few years ago among superstitious Christians in this country. A four-legged stool with a smooth seat is made from a particular kind of wood. A smooth block of the same wood is then taken and is rubbed on the top of the stool, the latter being previously sprinkled with a little water. If the rubbing is easy, all will go well; if difficult, there is trouble impending. Dr. Schweinfurth was received by the principal monarch of this people, Munza, in a wooden hall one hundred feet long, forty feet high, and fifty broad. There was an older and longer one near by, but this was out of repair. The king wore a plumed hat, a large number of copper ornaments, and a skin apron. A few days later, in celebrating a victory, he stepped down from his throne and danced a frantic *pas seul* for two hours in the same place in the presence of his eighty wives, who sat on low stools applauding vigorously—an amusing picture of the vanities of savage life.

South of the Niam-Niams are the Monbuttoos, also a fine race, of Niam-Niam blood. Their women do the farm-work, while the men hunt and do the iron-work. Both sexes make baskets and carve wood. The women enjoy great independence, manage all the household affairs, and appear to be in all respects on an equality with the men; but polygamy among them is unlimited, adultery common, and the demeanor of the women revolting. "Not a few were openly obscene." The men were dressed in drawers made of skins, but the women go entirely unclothed. The Monbuttoos are generally particular about their food, but are, in spite of their high degree of culture, shocking cannibals. The bodies of the slain in battle are divided on the field, and carried home and dried for future consumption, and Dr. Schweinfurth once came upon the most revolting scene of which we have ever read, the

preparation of a portion of the human body for the pot by some young women. "But, with it all, the Monbuttoos are a noble race of men—men who display a certain national pride, and are endowed with an intellect and judgment such as few natives of the African wilderness can boast—men to whom one may put a reasonable question, and who will return a reasonable answer. The Nubians can never say enough in praise of their faithfulness in friendly intercourse, and of the order and stability of their national life."

The question which we have already mentioned, and which must suggest itself to anybody who reads these volumes, why people who have made as much advances in civilization as some of the tribes our author here describes have not made more, he answers as follows:

"There is an utter want of wholesome intercourse between race and race. For any member of a tribe which speaks one dialect to cross the border of a tribe which speaks another is to make a venture at the hazard of his life. Districts there are, otherwise prosperous in every way, which become overpopulated, and from these there are emigrations which entail a change of pursuits, so that cattle-herders become agriculturists, and agriculturists become hunters living on the chase; districts again there are which shelter the remnant of a people who are resisting oppression to the very verge of despair, and there are districts which have been actually reduced to a condition of vassalage and servitude."

This answer, however, is not complete. It leaves unexplained the fact that civilization has not been wrought out in Africa as elsewhere by the ascendancy of the tribe of highest capacity over its inferior neighbors, resulting in the formation of an orderly and growing political community. Society has started everywhere, so far as our knowledge goes, under the conditions now present in Africa, but it has everywhere else gradually thrown them off through the rise into power of some clan possessing extraordinary capacity for civilization. In other words, the fittest has everywhere else got the better of the others, and either rooted them out or absorbed them.

Dr. Schweinfurth's account of the Akka or pigmy race, whose confines he nearly reached, and many members of which he saw, is what has perhaps attracted most attention to his book. It is, though meagre, of exceeding interest to the ethnologist, and goes far to strengthen the theory which the author holds, that the aboriginal population of Africa, of which the Akka and Bushmen are the surviving specimens, were men of diminutive stature, of limited intelligence, difficult articulation, and great manual dexterity, who were gradually dispossessed by tribes of larger mould. That this is probably true of Europe and America, and undoubtedly true of India, has long been an inference from popular legends which have received a good deal of confirmation of late from historical and scientific investigation. But the little men of European myths, like the "black man" of the Indian myths, is always a malevolent, tricky creature, who delights in annoying and injuring his betters, who hate him savagely. The Akka, on the other hand, though keen hunters, great archers and spear-throwers, and wonderfully mischievous and cruel, are said by Dr. Schweinfurth to be regarded as a kind of amusing pets or protégés by the Monbuttoos and Niam-Niams. Any extracts from this portion of the book would do it injustice. We cordially commend the whole of it to the perusal of our readers.

MASSON'S WORDSWORTH, SHELLEY, KEATS.*

OF the six essays contained in this volume, four are old and have already appeared in print, while two, those on Keats and Shelley, are new. The essays are so much above the level of periodical literature, of which we believe they originally were a part, that they deserved the permanent form here given them. And apart from their merit, there is this other reason besides for republishing them—namely, that Professor Masson intends issuing a complete and revised edition of his critical essays, and this volume is the first of the new set. The second volume is to be the 'Chatterton,' which is known in this country from having been reprinted ten or twelve years ago. As regards this same revision, it is clear that Mr. Masson needs to have a few words spoken to him; in this volume, he has been rather slovenly about it. For example, it is bad editorship to insert in the new essay on Keats, and at the same time retain in the old one on Wordsworth, the very similar remarks about the best poetical study of the external world. The point made is one well worth making: The critic selects as a characteristic mark of a certain school of poets whom the example of Wordsworth had called to the study of nature, that they seemed to think that nature consisted altogether in vegetation; they made themselves wearisome with continual lush grasses, meshed ivy, laburnums, roses, lilies, and much other persistent, wordy botany; they seemed to know little of any aspects of nature save such as could be seen on Hampstead Heath. Mr. Masson incidentally suggests that a good designation for this knot of writers would have been Hampstead Heathen, and we mention the suggestion because it is one of Mr. Masson's

* Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, and Other Essays. By David Masson M.A., LL.D. New York & London: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

habits to enliven his essays by familiar and facetious terms much like this that we have quoted. However, he proceeds to illustrate the difference between the Wordsworthian way of conceiving of nature and the way of which Leigh Hunt, as much as anybody else, set the fashion. The illustration is forcible. The first passage is Wordsworth's description of a boyish skating scene:

"So through the darkness and the cold we flew,
And not a voice was idle: with the din
Smitten, the precipices rang aloud;
The halle-trees and every icy crag
Tinkled like iron; while far-distant hills
Into the tumult sent an alien sound
Of melancholy, not unnoticed, while the stars,
Eastward, were sparkling clear, and in the west
The orange sky of evening died away."

The second passage is quoted from Keats, who, although vastly more than a botanical poet in his natural scenery, nevertheless in his early works furnishes by the hundred perfect examples of vegetation in excess. He cannot be said in doing it to do what other poets more fully identified with the school have done, and that is, make it evident that the pettiness, or daintiness, or fastidiousness, or whatever we are to call it, of the imagery employed was a true argument of a sort of femininity and affectedness and general pettiness of nature in the poet. It is in Leigh Hunt again that this is easiest seen—though of that critic and poet it is necessary to say, and all the more necessary inasmuch as he can be so irritating, that there is no reader of our poetical literature who is not often as truly his debtor as a thirsty traveller to the friend who points him to a new or a forgotten spring. In the lines from Keats, in which the poet describes the spot where Cupid watches Adonis at the command of Venus, there is, we may be sure, nothing of Wordsworth's frozen lake ringing beneath the open winter sky, orange in the west and sparkling in the east with stars; of the iron-branched trees, or the distant mountain sending a solemn, alien sound into the midst of the nearer din; on the contrary, we are enclosed from the mighty face of Nature within a somewhat unwholesome growth of greens:

" . . . Above his head
Four lily-stalks did their white honors wed
To make a coronal; and round him grew
All tendrils green, of every bloom and hue,
Together intertwined and tramelled fresh;
The vine of glossy sprout; the ivy mesh;
Shading the Ethiop berries, and woodbine,
Of velvet leaves and bugled-blossoms divine;
Cynovulus in streaked vases flush;
The creeper, mellowing for an autumn blush;
And virgin's bower, trailing airily;
With others of the sisterhood."

As we have said, the substance of Mr. Masson's line of criticism on these opposed poetic methods appears twice in the revised essays, which seems a mistake. The critic thinks, however, that his distinction between Nature and Nature botanized is one which more than any other needs dinning into the modern youthful poetic mind, and this belief of his may plead in justification. The repetition looks clumsy, however; the more particularly as the distinction, which so far as we know has been more consciously and more forcibly preached by Mr. Masson than by other dissatisfied critics, has been by him presented in the Keats essay with all due emphasis and skill.

A habit of Professor Masson's which some of his readers do not find agreeable, is of more obvious consequence to his style than his free-and-easy way of being impressive. This is his habit of bringing together before the reader's eyes not only the one or two personages whom he wishes to exhibit, but also numerous others besides who happened to be alive at the same time, or at some time nearly the same, or, indeed, at some time not at all nearly the same; and alive also in the same place, or some near place, or some place not near, who may somehow be attached to the central figure by ties direct or indirect. Though often exclaimed against, some vestiges of this to us confusing way of composing a picture these essays still show; as the one on Shelley, and as in the case where, by reason of Lord Jeffrey as a boy having once seen Burns, and Burns's life having extended so far that he was born while James Thomson was still living, we have a grouping in the coincidental manner of all literary Scotchmen from David Hume to our contemporary Carlyle. The essay in which this historical painting is set up displays another of Mr. Masson's characteristics—his Scotticism, which is fervent. His subject in the essay is "Scottish Influence on British Literature"; but what he really does is to enquire at length—and if with hearty patriotism yet with candor—into the roots and reasons of that *perferendum ingenium* about which so much has been said. He details the causes which have tended to make the Scot a highly individualized person—as, for example, his small country, so often needing defence against a powerful neighbor, and the defence of which bred the will and the pugnacity which lie at the basis of an independent character; his interest in religious topics, which his mysterious and often terrible storms and mists increased at the same time that his wild and changeable surroundings bred doubt in him; his

love of controversy, leading so nearly into the realm of out-and-out bitter dogmatism—in short, there is a good deal of philosophizing, the result of which is that Mr. Masson reduces the *perferendum ingenium* of his countrymen to a habit of "emphases" intellectual or moral, or both. This seems to leave us much where it found us—that is to say, if we are Scotchmen, enquiring without uneasiness what good thing exactly it was that was meant by the phrase-coiner; and if we are not Scotchmen, tolerably contented with the belief that the *perferendum ingenium* in the case of good Scotchmen means intellectual and moral energy without very much of intellectual or moral repose; while in the case of some other persons, it may mean pragmatic conceit, selfishness, and other qualities which, as the Japanese preacher remarks to his hearers at the close of his sermon, "may no doubt be found among people inhabiting the more distant parts of India and China." That some such are found near Arthur's Seat Mr. Masson does not hint, though he admits that there are foreigners whose opinion of the Scottish national character would not be fully defined by the term "emphasis."

The book may fairly be described as instructive and entertaining reading, and it has one particular merit which makes it in our opinion a valuable elementary work for any young man or woman entering upon the study of literary works—or, let us say, of literature. Moved probably by the exigencies of his position as a rhetorical professor at Edinburgh, and moved, perhaps, also by that function of the *perferendum*, etc., which induces Scotchmen either to classify and systematize all things earthly and heavenly, or else die, Mr. Masson has paid great attention to certain literary questions of primary importance—real or formal. One of these questions, for example, is where to draw the shadowy line of demarcation between the spirits of prose and of poetry; how to determine what is the appropriate verbal dress for this or that subject, and consequently how the true law may be observed or transgressed. All this Mr. Masson discusses with class-room lucidity and more than class-room ability. His book may do little to settle problems like this; but it will lay them out before many minds in a form more apprehensible than they usually assume on their first appearance, or indeed their steady recurrence, to the minds of youthful enquirers.

A defect which is not of an importance to correspond with the importance of the good quality which we have mentioned is the fact that while Mr. Masson is usually a sensible writer, generally taking safe and well-trodden critical roads, like Audrey, the gods did not make him poetical, nor endow him with any very exquisite degree of literary taste. The reader cannot be absolutely sure that a well-seasoned remark on Milton may not be followed by praises of the vagarious "impassioned prose" of Jean Paul, the cold limbs of whose buried little ones, touching his soul, he tells us, on a certain occasion, removed its blots as dead hands cure eruptions of the skin.

HENRY BEYLE.*

STENDHAHL was a most singular character, but nothing surely in his destiny was so singular as having Mr. Paton write his life. Beyond his good-will and his industry, we are unable to perceive that the biographer has a single qualification for his task, and we should be curious to know whether it was undertaken spontaneously or to order. In speaking of the author's admirable 'Chroniques Italiennes,' and by implication of his masterpiece, the 'Chartreuse de Parme,' Mr. Paton remarks that Beyle was here quite off his beat, and that what he *might* have done was something in the "pleasant, gossiping manner of Louisa Mühlbach"! In his review of his hero's works, Mr. Paton devotes eleven pages to that forgotten fragment, the 'Vie de Rossini,' and not a line to this same 'Chartreuse de Parme,' now recognized as Beyle's chief title to the attention of posterity. Of the smallest capacity to appreciate the author either on his moral or intellectual side Mr. Paton is strikingly guiltless. He regards him as a shrewd, amusing, eccentric gossip, determined to have his laugh at everything, and to offer his readers at any cost a light, frothy entertainment—a judgment about on a level with his speaking incidentally of the "naïve Dutch realism of Balzac." A critic who finds Stendahl amusing and Balzac "naïf" must be left to his own devices. Mr. Paton is, as a commentator, quite worthless, and as a writer sadly slipshod and vulgar. We have seldom seen a book more in need of a complete revision, both as to matter and to manner. It contains hardly an opinion which is not ludicrously erratic, and hardly a quotation, a foreign phrase, or a proper name which is not misspelled and misprinted. But the author writes with a garrulous *bonhomie*—that of an easy-going cosmopolite, well advanced, apparently, in years—which will soften the edge of the reader's displeasure; and he is to be thanked at any rate for bringing Beyle once more before the world, and giving occasion for that final sitting and summing up of opinion which the world finds it constantly more needful to practise expeditiously towards all claimants for permanent attention. But it seems, we

* Henry Beyle (otherwise De Stendahl). A Critical and Biographical Study. By Andrew Archibald Paton. London: Trübner & Co. 1874.

repeat, the crowning stroke of that something perverse and melancholy which pervaded all Stendahl's career, that these last proceedings in judgment should take place in an English court and be carried on in English—and in English in which Mr. Paton has a voice. Beyle was the most French of Frenchmen, but he spent half his life in Italy, lauding the Italians and denouncing his countrymen. He caused "Arrigo Beyle, Milanese," to be inscribed upon his tombstone, and he falls victim, thirty years after his death, to a biographer who discourses upon him in a strange, slovenly English, flavored with Scotch and interlarded with disfigured fragments of French and Italian. By denying that he was the flippant feuilletonist represented by Mr. Paton, we do not mean to intimate that he was a dull writer. He is always interesting and often divertingly so, but his merit, to our sense, is not in his powers of entertainment, greater or less, but simply in his instinctive method. What this method was, and how instinctive it was, is suggested by this passage in a letter to his sister, written in his twenty-first year:

"I like *examples*, and not, like Montesquieu, Buffon, and Rousseau, systems. . . . Help me to know provincial manners and passions; describe me the manners in the drawing-room of Madame ——. I need examples and facts. Write quickly, without seeking fine phrases. . . . Contribute to my knowledge of women, facts, facts! I have a passionate desire to know human nature, and a great mind to live in a boarding-house, where people cannot conceal their real characters. . . . Borrow and read Sallust; you will find there thirty superb characters."

Later, he advises the same young lady to make a list of the good and bad passions, and then to write opposite each category a description of such examples as she had observed. By perseverance in this course, she would find that she had discovered treasures of knowledge of human nature. It was this absorbing passion for example, anecdote, and illustration that constituted Beyle's distinctive genius, and is the ground of the fresh claims put forth on his behalf by his recent eloquent apostle, M. Taine. Beyle felt, as soon as he began to observe, that character, manners, and civilization are explained by circumstances, and that in the way of observing and collecting circumstances there was a great work to be done. He devoted himself as far as possible to doing it, and on the whole, with his profound mistrust of systems, left the theory of the matter very much to take care of itself. M. Taine follows, with a genius for theory, and erects a symmetrical system on Beyle's unordered data. It is interesting to observe that in his attempts to theorize, Beyle is always flimsy and erratic; and that in his attempts to collect small facts in the manner of Beyle (as in 'Monsieur Graindorge'), M. Taine is generally ponderous and infelicitous.

The only value of Mr. Paton's volume is in its disinterring a good many obscure facts of Beyle's personal history, and, in particular, in its offering us a number of extracts from the copious and intimate correspondence which he carried on in his early years with his sister Pauline. With his genius for observation, fortune led Beyle, happily, to see a good deal of the world. He was born at Grenoble in the year 1783. His father occupied an honorable position in the law, but his means were moderate, and Beyle's money-troubles were unceasing to the day of his death. In his own line, he had a fine start in life in having opportunities for close observation of the great Napoleonic drama. He obtained by family influence a cavalry commission in the army, and afterwards occupied some responsible posts in the commissariat. He was at the battle of Marengo and in the retreat from Moscow (as the reader of any given five pages of his writing will not fail to discover). He also discharged various small administrative functions in Germany. In his Italian campaign, he formed that passion for Italy and all things Italian which provided him with the occupation of a lifetime. He returned to Milan in 1811, and from that time to his death made repeated visits, of varying duration, amounting in all to more than twenty years. His last ten years (though he died while on leave of absence in Paris) were spent as consul to Civita Vecchia—a passion for Italy cherished certainly under difficulties. He died in 1841. Mr. Paton will enable an ingenious reader to construct a tolerably vivid personal portrait. After the fall of the Empire, Beyle was continually poor, and his habits and tastes demanded money. His writings were not popular, and have come into favor since his death. He was extremely ugly, with a coarse, corpulent, plebeian ugliness. Mr. Paton says characteristically that by one of his friends "some rather offensive" traits are mentioned—"for instance, he wore stays." This is certainly not an Anglo-Saxon custom for gentlemen, but, except that, as Beyle was very fat, tight-lacing may have often been uncomfortable to him, we are at a loss to see to whom, besides himself, it was "offensive." Mr. Paton adds that the same witness, whose name he misprints, pronounces him "a *gentilhomme sans blason*," and translates the phrase "a would-be gentleman, without armorial bearings." It means, of course, the direct reverse—a real gentleman, though he could show no arms. This judgment affords some relief to the reader's imagination, which, by reflecting much upon Beyle's poverty and his ugliness, has found itself unable to view in as

graceful a light as is desirable his unremitting and somewhat pretentious love-affairs. It is an especial ill-fortune for Beyle that his relations with women and his views on the whole matter of love should be presented for judgment at an English tribunal, unaccustomed to dealing either with such temperaments or with such opinions. Beyle's temperament was apparently the French temperament in a highly exaggerated form; and as for his opinions, they are scattered through all his writings, and especially embodied in his voluminous treatise 'De l'Amour'—his masterpiece, according to Mr. Paton, but to our taste that one of his books which, with the exception perhaps of 'Le Rouge et le Noir,' comes nearest to being absolutely unreadable. As is generally the case in regard to this matter in the lives of men of genius in which it plays a part, we know at once too much and too little. We know with more or less accuracy the number and succession of the ladies to whom these gentlemen have been devoted, and we know their published philosophy of such devotion, but we are not able, for want of a general light, to appreciate justly either the weak points in their philosophy or the strong points in their conduct.

Stendahl was apparently very indutrious, though he worked in a desultory and disjointed manner, wrote (or published, at least) because he had to do so for bread, and affected to be as little as possible a *littérateur* by profession. He ought to have considered, however, that the character was made honorable by the danger which he persisted in fancying attached to it. He published everything under a false name (he had half a dozen), travestied his own on his tombstone, and is known to fame by a disguise. He professed an entire indifference to literary fame, except as consisting in mere conciseness. He boasts that the 'Chartreuse de Parme' is written in the style of the Civil Code. He borrowed largely, especially in his early writings, and transferred long passages from other books without acknowledgment. One may say roughly that his subject is always Italy. He had a number of affectations, but his passion for Italy is evidently profoundly sincere, and will serve to keep his memory sweet to many minds and his authority unquestioned. This subject he treated under a number of different forms; most successfully, toward the end of his life, in a novel which will always be numbered among the dozen finest novels we possess; in a number of short tales, founded on fact, and extracted from the manuscript archives of Italian families, of many of whom Stendahl purchased the privilege of transcribing for a certain number of mornings in their libraries—just as in some parts of the Rhineland one may obtain for a small fee the right to spend an hour in a vineyard or orchard, and retire carrying as much fruit as possible about one's person, as the phrase is; and in a series of loosely connected notes, descriptive, reflective, anecdotic, and epigrammatic, on monuments and pictures, manners and morals (such as 'Rome, Naples et Florence' and the 'Promenades dans Rome'). To these last may be added his 'Histoire de la Peinture en Italie' and various pamphlets—the 'Vie de Rossini' and 'Racine et Shakspeare.' The 'History of Painting' is an ambitious name for a string of desultory though often acute and suggestive dissertations on matters nearly and remotely connected with Italian art. It is no history, and, with much suggestiveness, it has to our mind little value. Stendahl as an art-critic is inveterately beside the mark, and it is striking evidence of the development of the science of taste within the last forty years that with his extreme "sensitivity," as he would call it, and his excellent opportunities for study, he should seem to us nowadays to belong to so false a school.

The letters placed in Mr. Paton's hands by Beyle's family, and unfortunately offered us here only in translated and condensed extracts, add much to our sense of intimacy with our author, but help us little to understand him better. He was a strange mixture of genius and pretension, of amiability and arrogance, of fine intuitions and patent follies. He condemned his genius to utter more foolish things than it seems to us a wise man was ever before responsible for. He practised contempt on a wholesale, a really grotesque scale, and considered, or pretended to consider, all mankind an aggregation of "sots," except a small class endowed like himself with "sensitivity." We have spoken of his method; it was excellent, but we may say on the whole that it was better than any use he made of it—save only when he wrote the 'Chartreuse de Parme.' His notion was that *passion*, the power to surrender one's self sincerely and consistently to the feeling of the hour, was the finest thing in the world, and it seemed to him that he had discovered a mine of it in the old Italian character. In the French, passion was abortive, through the action of vanity and the fear of the neighbors' opinion—a state of things with which he is never weary of expressing his disgust. It is easy to perceive that this doctrine held itself quite irresponsible to our old moralistic canons, for *naïveté* of sentiment in any direction, combined with great energy, was considered absolutely its own justification. In the 'Chartreuse de Parme,' where every one is grossly immoral, and the heroine is a kind of

monster, there is so little attempt to offer any other, that through the magnificently sustained pauses of the narrative we feel at last the influence of the writer's cynicism, regard it as amiable, and enjoy serenely his clear vision of the mechanism of character, unclouded by the mists of prejudice. Among writers called immoral there is no doubt that he best deserves the charge; the others, beside him, are spotlessly innocent. But his immorality seems vicious and harsh only according to the subjects he handles. 'Le Rouge et le Noir,' 'L'Amour,' and certain passages in his other writings have an air of unredeemed corruption—a quality which in the novel amounts to a positive blight and dreariness. For the rest, Stendahl professed a passionate love of the beautiful *per se*, and there is every reason to suppose that it was sincere. He was an entertaining mixture of sentiment and cynicism. He describes his heroes and heroines in perfect good faith as "sublime," in appearance and fact, in the midst of the most disreputable actions, and it seems to him that one may perfectly well live a scandalous life and sit up half the night reading Dante in a glow of pure rapture. In repudiating Mr. Paton's assumption that he is a light writer, we would fain express that singular something which is fairly described neither as serious nor as solemn—a kind of painful tension of feeling under the disguise of the coolest and easiest style. It is the tension, in part, of conceit—the conceit which leads him with every tenth phrase to prophecy in the most trenchant manner the pass to which "les sots" will have brought things within such and such a period—and in part of aspiration, of deep enjoyment of some bold touch of nature or some fine stroke of art. This bespeaks the restlessness of a superior mind, and makes our total feeling for Beyle a kindly one. We recommend his books to persons of "sensibility" whose moral convictions have somewhat solidified.

A Treatise on Food and Dietetics. By F. W. Pavy, M.D., F.R.S. 8vo, pp. 574. (Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea. 1874.)—In this volume Dr. Pavy discusses the physiology of food in the light of modern scientific discovery, while at the same time he avoids the error, into which recent writers on this subject are so prone to fall, of attaching undue importance to scientific observations which really cover only a portion of the subject, and of overlooking the empirical results arrived at by the daily experience of life. Although in his remarks on the dynamic relations of foods the author seems to have scarcely mastered the question in all its bearings, yet this portion of the work is on the whole satisfactory, and well repays perusal. The important part played by nitrogen in the animal economy, and the relation of nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous food to muscular force, are well explained and exemplified by a detailed account of the classical experiment of Feek and Wislicenus, and of the more recent observations of Parkes; and incidentally the conclusions drawn by Flint from his observations on Weston, the pedestrian, receive a very able criticism. The author's position as leader of that school of physiologists who regard the formation of sugar in the liver as entirely a post-mortem phenomenon, seems unfortunately to have led him to ignore many recent investigations, all tending to show that the liver is to be regarded as a storehouse where a starch-like substance, derived from various sorts of food, and known as glycogen, is accumulated during digestion, and afterwards given out in the form of grape-sugar as the necessities of the body may require—the liver, according to this view, performing an analogous function in the animal economy to that of tubers and bulbs in the vegetable world. The absence of all reference to this important advance in physiology is perhaps the most serious defect in the whole work.

Dr. Pavy's list of alimentary substances is a very long one, and includes much interesting information about articles which are only exceptionally used as the food of man. It is very satisfactory to find the relative digestibility of the various articles stated without reference to the tables drawn up by Beaumont as the result of his observations on Alexis St. Martin, for these tables, though expressing only the time during which the various substances remained in the fistulous stomach of the Canadian, have been too often regarded as furnishing complete information on the question of comparative digestibility. The portion of the volume which treats of dietetics contains much useful information, not the least important of which is the list of dietaries in the principal hospitals of Great Britain. On the whole, this work may be regarded as the best of its class in the English language, though, in view of the works of Smith and Letheby on the same subject, we must take exception to the somewhat uncourteous remark in the preface, that "no modern systematic treatise of the kind here presented exists in the English language."

A Manual of Mediæval and Modern History. By M. E. Thalheimer, formerly Teacher of History and Composition in the Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y. (Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. 8vo, pp. 480.)—Miss Thalheimer's manual of mediæval and modern history

is marked by the same excellences as her manual of ancient history; and we do not hesitate to pronounce it the best school text-book, covering the same ground, with which we are acquainted. Its principal fault, too, is that which we pointed out in the earlier work—an excessive amount of detail. This would be no disadvantage where the instruction is properly done; but most teachers in this country have no higher standard of teaching than to require every word to be learned by heart, proper names, dates, and all. A good teacher will know how much of this matter the pupils ought to commit to memory, and with such the book will be found interesting and suggestive. An average teacher will use it only to load the pupils' minds with a mass of to them useless lumber. The arrangement is as good as could be expected in so very difficult a field, and would perhaps be unequivocally good if the editor had used more cross-references and had introduced more abundant chronological tables. Take, for example, the Byzantine history, p. 56, where a distinct reference back to p. 42 would make the connection clear, reminding the pupil of Michael the Drunkard and the republic of the Paulicians; for an ordinary school-boy will not stop to look these names up in the index. Again, the period of the Crusades has a very lucid and convenient arrangement, bringing in the "Guelfs and Ghibellines" and "England and France" separately after the general sketch of the Crusades; but the period which follows (to the Discovery of America) lacks this unity and simplicity. It would have been better to have chosen some one country, say France (or the Church), as a centre for the general sketch, keeping it quite distinct from other countries, and then followed it up, as is done, with special sections.

The book is remarkably free from typographical and other errors, but we notice a few discrepancies and trifling errors in the maps. Thus, in one map, the French spelling of Strasbourg and Luxembourg stands with the German Mentz and Coblenz. Again, Argovie and Thurgovie for purely German cantons; Heidelberg, Nuremberg, Luzerne, Besancon, Alaucon. The maps are excellent, twelve in number. There are good and perhaps sufficient genealogical tables; chronological tables might, however, be advantageously added. A useful feature is the Recapitulation at the end of each section.

The Poems of Virgil. Vol. I. The Pastoral Poems and first Six Books of the *Æneid*. Edited by J. H. and W. F. Allen and J. B. Greenough. (Boston: Ginn Brothers. 1874.)—This volume is in keeping with the high character of the editors' previous publications. It is not too much to say that with the appearance of their 'Latin Grammar' in 1872 began a new era in the study of the Latin language in America, and perhaps there is no more encouraging token of the condition of classical scholarship among us than the cordial and intelligent welcome so generally extended to this advanced manual. Their edition of 'Selected Orations of Cicero' in 1873 was superior to any which the American student had before had. A practical application of the best results of Latin scholarship and of general philology, and a clear conciseness of statement, pre-eminently characterized both works, and these are the qualities which give to this edition of Virgil its great merit. The wealth of comment which has accumulated about the language and thoughts of their author the editors seem to have thoroughly examined, without, however, sacrificing a practical and independent spirit peculiar to themselves. Wherever a diligent learner would be likely to have doubts about Virgil's exact meaning, or to be puzzled by the idioms or subtleties of the Latin, there the editors appear with ample help, or, at least, with a clue to the solution. We have been particularly pleased with the synopses of thought which precede and accompany each portion of the poems.

In purity of the Virgilian text, we think that this school-edition will be found in advance of any of its predecessors. But as the book is designed especially for young students of Latin, the wisdom of its discrepancy in matters of orthography may be doubted. Among such discrepancies are, in the first Eclogue, *fines* and *finis*, both in the accusative plural; *formosus* and *formosus*, in the fifth Eclogue; and with about equal frequency in the *Æneid*, *humidus* and *umidus*. Though it be conceded that such varieties of form existed among the scholars of the Augustan age, and even that so painstaking an author as Virgil wrote the same word in different ways, we very much question the expediency of troubling beginners with such points. Recent investigations have, indeed, materially modified the conventional orthography which has come to us from Latinists of the fifteenth century, but the whole question is still such an open one—even among veteran scholars—that tyros ought not to be bewildered with it. At the least, those editors who would incorporate such matters in a school-book should give a synoptical statement of its orthographical peculiarities rather than assume that the book will be read in course with a memory tenacious of pertinent notes. In fairly instituting any change from the conventional to the historical

method of spelling Latin, the distinction in form between vocal and consonantal *i* and *e* should certainly be abandoned. Another slight defect in this edition is the marking of certain passages as spurious, or of doubtful authenticity, without a statement of the reasons therefor. The ordinary reader of Virgil—in whom little familiarity with textual criticism can be presumed—resents, as a species of sacrilege, any apparently arbitrary interference with the traditional text, while the school-boy gazes only vacantly at the mystic brackets.

In the second volume of this edition we are promised, not only the *Georgics* and the remaining books of the *Aeneid*, but also the too much neglected minor poems attributed to Virgil.

Physiology for Practical Use. Edited by James Hinton. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.)—Displeasing as much of the deluge of "popularizing" books of science may seem to the more strenuous student, he must simply bow his head, and instead of protesting content himself with discriminating and picking out the best. This being the case, we think Mr. Hinton's treatise is to be recommended as conveying a great deal of useful information in clear and untechnical words. It is true that the chapters are desultorily strung together, and that the subject is made easy by an almost complete omission of reference to the experimental methods by which the results given have been ascertained. Thus the work has hardly any educational value. We think the reading, on the one hand, of such a book as Huxley's 'Elementary Lessons,' and, on the other, of some popular book on hygiene, were it even nothing better than Black's 'Ten Laws of Health,' would be more profitable, because more systematic, and would take no longer time. But our minds nowadays are getting intolerant of any but desultory, scrappy reading. Professor Agassiz used to say that no man could understand more of a generalization than his knowledge of particulars would cover: no particulars, no intelligence whatever of the general theory. The proposition is not always absolutely true, but we feel strongly its force in reading the first chapter of Mr. Hinton's book, probably written by himself, on 'The Brain and its Servants.' A reader whose only knowledge of the nervous system came from this account of its functions, its inhibitions, its sensibilities, and its various degrees of automatic and voluntary performance, all expressed in vague theorems with nowhere a concrete analytic experiment—such a reader's notions would indeed be strangely wild and dim. Still the book, as far as it goes, is accurate and very readable. Some will object to the frequent moralizing of the editor. We ourselves do not. The chapters on alcohol, on the ear, taking cold, ventilation, headache, and sleeplessness are good. Here is an extract with which we may close:

"Hydropathy has at all events made one thing popular, namely, that people do not necessarily catch cold from sleeping in wet bandages or even wet sheets if proper precautions are adopted. These precautions consist in placing a sufficient amount of dry clothing over that which is wet to prevent any feeling of chilliness from being experienced by the patient. Here is a principle not to be lost sight of; should it be one's misfortune to meet with a damp bed under circumstances in which no other is to be had, let all available coverings be placed over it, or at least to the extent that the person who occupies it shall feel warm and comfortable. He may then defy the damp and sleep in security."

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RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Forty-third Congress, First Session. House of Representatives. Report No. 259. Cultivation of Timber and Preservation of Forests. March 17, 1874. 8vo, pp. 120.

At the meeting of the American Association held at Portland in August, 1873, a committee was appointed to memorialize Congress in reference to the wasteful destruction of American forests, and the importance of arresting it, not only with respect to the future supply of timber, but also on account of the effect upon the climate of the country. This committee, consisting of Mr. George B. Emerson of Boston, and Dr. Franklin B. Hough of Lowville, N. Y., proceeded to Washington during the past winter, and presented to the Secretary of the Interior the memorial referred to. This was favorably endorsed by the Commissioner of the General Land Office, and then transmitted to the President, who made it the subject of a special message to Congress, whereupon it was referred to the Committee on Public Lands, by whom this report is made. After a comparison between our former and present supply of timber, the Committee give the percentage of woodlands in various countries, and proceed to a critical consideration of some of the forest tracts of the United States, especially the pine forests of Michigan. Lumber statistics follow, as furnished by the census, and an estimate is attempted of the ratio of consumption of timber for various purposes—as, for railroads, fences, bridges, fuel, etc. The effect of forests upon rivers and water-courses is next considered, and a note of warning raised as to the result of indiscriminate clearing of the ground, especially in mountainous regions, upon the distribution of the rain-fall, producing freshets on the one hand and stages of low water on the other; and the experiences of various nations in this respect are cited. Several essays by Dr. Hough, who has paid particular attention to this matter, are given in the work, which forms an excellent synopsis of the present state of our knowledge on the subject. A copious alphabetical index makes it possible to refer at once to any particular topic. The Committee on Public Lands recommend the appointment of a competent Commission of Enquiry, upon whose report Congress can adopt such remedial and precautionary measures as may be found expedient.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Boyesen (H. H.), Gunnar: a Tale of Norse Life.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) \$1.50
Catalogue of the Mercantile Library Association.....	(San Francisco)
Corson (C. R.), New French Instructor.....	(Andrus, McChain & Co.)
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Gardner (E. C.), Homes, and How to make Them.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2.00
Hopper (H.), The Lost Model.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Jay (W. M. L.), Holden with the Cords.....	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 2.00
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Lyman (Maj. W.), A Collection of Tactical Studies.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
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Molesworth (W. N.), History of England, 1830-1874, 3 vols.....	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 7.50
Neumann (Dr. F. X.), Ernten und Wohland in Oesterreich-Ungarn, swd.....	(L. W. Schmidt)
Oosterzee (Prof. J. J. van), Christian Dogmatics, 2 vols.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 6.00
Peake (Elizabeth), The German Emperors and their Contemporaries.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Steffens (H.), German University Life.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Part 2, swd.....	(L. W. Schmidt)
Swinton (W.), Outlines of the World's History.....	(Iverson, Blakeman & Co.)
Taylor (B.), The Prophet: a Tragedy.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2.00
Verne (J.), The Floating City, and The Blockade Runners.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
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Lest the readers of the *Nation* should be misled by the narrow criticism which appeared in a late number, we offer for their inspection the following extracts from a few of the many favorable reviews already received. In fact the *Nation* is the only publication in this country which has as yet, as far as we are aware, given anything but a favorable notice of this truly valuable work.

THE SEVENTH EDITION was issued in England last month, though the book was only published on the 15th of last May!

From the *GUARDIAN*.

"We have in every page the results of an intimate acquaintance with the literature bearing upon his great subject, while the quotations and references in the notes more especially intended for the learned reader, substantiate the author's claim that, 'without intending to be exhaustive or specially erudite, his pages contain much that men of the highest learning have thought and ascertained.' We pass to our Lord's teaching. In no department of his difficult work, we think, has Dr. Farrar more strikingly displayed his literary ability than in the skill with which he has condensed the larger discourses of Christ, e.g., the 'Sermon on the Mount,' and brought out their salient points, with a clear apprehension of the meaning of his words and the impression they made on those who heard them. No part will be read with greater pleasure or advantage."

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

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THE money market has remained easy, with the rate standing at 2 to 3 per cent. for call loans. There are no indications of any improvement on rates, the banks and financial institutions being as greatly encumbered as ever with surplus funds, which they have been unable to loan out at anything like paying rates. For commercial paper there is a quick market, with very little offering. We quote the market as follows: 6½ to 7½ for prime names having 3 to 4 months to run, and 5 to 6 per cent. for that running 60 days and under.

Cable advices on Thursday reported the Bank of England rate of discount unchanged at 3 per cent., and a gain of £260,000 in the bullion of the Bank.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-house banks of this city, issued on Saturday, was slightly unfavorable; it compares as follows with that of the previous week:

	Sept. 5.	Sept. 12.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$279,084,900	\$280,867,800	Inc. \$1,782,900
Specie.....	18,891,300	19,863,100	Inc. 971,800
Legal tenders.....	65,604,700	63,325,900	Dec. 2,278,800
Deposits.....	234,746,000	237,882,500	Inc. 3,136,500
Circulation.....	25,662,400	25,605,700	Dec. 56,700

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Sept. 5.	Sept. 12.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$18,891,300	\$19,863,100	Inc. \$971,800
Legal tenders.....	65,604,700	63,325,900	Dec. 2,278,800
Total reserve.....	\$84,496,000	\$83,189,000	Inc. \$1,307,000
Reserve required against deposits.....	58,686,500	59,470,625	Inc. 784,125
Excess of reserve above legal requirement.....	25,809,500	23,718,375	Dec. 2,091,125

The stock market during the week was active and the prevailing feeling generally "bullish." The efforts to advance prices have been mainly directed towards a few stocks, such as Union Pacific, Lake Shore, and Western Union, the improvement in which ranged between 1¼ and 3¼ per cent. New York Central was strong upon the usual declaration of its half-yearly dividend of 4 per cent., coupled with the announcement that in future the dividends upon the stock would be paid quarterly, 2 per cent. every three months. The movement in Union Pacific has assumed important shape, and there is no end to the rumors which have been set afloat relative to the heretofore unknown intrinsic value of the stock. The most important statement, which comes from the "great operator" himself, Jay Gould, is that the road earned its interest for the entire year during the first eight months, and that the net earnings, after paying operating expenses, during the last four months of the fiscal year, will be applicable to the payment of dividends on the stock. The "talk" among the bulls is that by the 1st of January the price of Union Pacific will be 50, and by July next 75 will be low for it, as by that time payment of regular dividends will have been commenced. While there may be some doubt as to the correctness of these predictions, there is no doubt whatever upon one point, and that is, that extraordinary efforts are being made to advance its price, and that a sufficient amount has already been purchased by the bulls, which would, in ordinary times, have been sufficient to have worked the stock up to 40. The weak spot in the market has been C., C. and I. C., which fell off to 8. The "Granger" stocks—Milwaukee and St. Paul, and Chicago and Northwestern—have also been a drag upon the general market, speculation in which has been feverish, owing to pending litigation regarding them in the Wisconsin court.

The market to-day opened strong and buoyant, particularly in Union Pacific, which during the day advanced to 34½; Lake Shore, which sold up to 75½, and Western Union, which sold at 80½. The balance of the list advanced from ¼ to ½ above the closing prices of Saturday. In the afternoon, the "Granger" stocks took a sudden jump, St. Paul going from 32½ to 34, and Northwestern from 36 to 38½, upon the false announcement that the Wisconsin court had made a decision in the railroad suits favorable to the roads.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, September 12, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed. day.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R. L.	103 103½	103½ 104	104 104½	104 104½	104½ 104½	104 104½	33,005
Lake Shore.....	73½ 74	74½ 75	74½ 74½	74½ 74½	74½ 74½	74½ 74½	131,235
Erie.....	34½ 34½	34½ 34½	34½ 34½	34½ 34½	34½ 34½	34½ 34½	20,400
Union Pacific.....	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	165,900
Chl. & N. W.	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	30½ 30½	24,075
Do. pfd.....	55½ 55½	55½ 55½	55½ 55½	55½ 55½	55½ 55½	55½ 55½	500
N. J. Central.....	104 104	104 104	104 104	104 104	104 104	104 104	1,620
Rock Island.....	99½ 99½	99½ 99½	99½ 99½	99½ 99½	99½ 99½	99½ 99½	36,900
Mil. & St. Paul.....	33½ 33½	33½ 33½	33½ 33½	33½ 33½	33½ 33½	33½ 33½	25,000
Do. pfd.....	32½ 32½	32½ 32½	32½ 32½	32½ 32½	32½ 32½	32½ 32½	1,400
Wabash.....	31½ 31½	31½ 31½	31½ 31½	31½ 31½	31½ 31½	31½ 31½	81,500
D. L. & W.	108 108	108 108	108 108	108 108	108 108	108 108	1,125
O. & M.	24½ 24½	24½ 24½	24½ 24½	24½ 24½	24½ 24½	24½ 24½	9,960
C. C. & I. C.	8 8	8 8	8 8	8 8	8 8	8 8	6,400
W. U. Tel.	78½ 78½	78½ 78½	78½ 78½	78½ 78½	78½ 78½	78½ 78½	142,100
Pacific Mail.....	48½ 48½	48½ 48½	48½ 48½	48½ 48½	48½ 48½	48½ 48½	92,500

Government securities have been quiet, with prices fractionally lower, in sympathy with the weakness of the gold premium. The demand for bonds has been extremely light, both for home and foreign account. The following are the closing prices this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c.....	117½	118	Registered 5-20's, 1867, c.....	116½	117½
Registered 5-20's, 1862, c.....	112½	113	Registered 5-20's, 1868, c.....	116½	117
Registered 5-20's, 1864, c.....	115½	116	Registered 5's, 10-40's, c.....	111½	112½
Registered 5-20's, 1865, M and N.....	116	117	Registered 5's of 1881.....	111½	112½
Registered 5-20's, 1865, J. and J.....	115½	116	U. S. Currency 6's.....	117½	118

The principal feature in the railroad bond market was the sharp decline in the bonds of the C., C. and I. C. R. R. Co., the First Mortgages of which sold down to 70, and the Second Mortgages to 23, against 81 and 60 respectively, the prices they were selling at previous to the default in payment of interest. Union Pacific bonds were strong, especially the Incomes, which advanced from 80 to 83 during the week. The better class of railroad bonds are in very good demand, a marked preference being shown for them by investors over any other securities now offering. The New Jersey Central consolidated bonds, recently offered to the stockholders at 90, are in demand at a premium of 3 to 4 per cent. over subscription price. \$3,000,000 New York Central and Hudson River Consolidated 7 per cent. bonds have been recently negotiated abroad at 105.

The gold market exhibits continued dullness; the extreme figures have been between 109½ and 109¾, the market closing on Saturday at the lowest point of the week.

The following shows the range of quotations:

	Monday, Sept. 7.	Tuesday, Sept. 8.	Wednesday, Sept. 9.	Thursday, Sept. 10.	Friday, Sept. 11.	Saturday, Sept. 12.
Opening.	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½
Highest.	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½
Lowest.	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½
Closing.	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½	109½

The specie shipments for the week were unimportant in amount—\$723,000, consisting mostly of silver bars.

NOTICE TO THE HOLDERS

FIRST-MORTGAGE BONDS OF THE OREGON AND CALIFORNIA RAILROAD.

The undersigned Trustees are prepared to purchase, for the Sinking Fund, a certain amount of the First Mortgage Bonds of the Oregon and California Railroad Company, and hereby invite offers of such bonds from holders.

The lowest offers will be accepted up to the amount of the available means which are derived from the sale of the Company's lands; but no proposals above par and accrued interest in gold will be considered.

Communications stating amount and price of bonds, and marked "Offer of Oregon and California Railroad Bonds," may be addressed to the undersigned, care of the London and San Francisco Bank, San Francisco, California.

MILTON S. LATHAM, } Trustees.
WILLIAM MORRIS, }
FAXON D. ATHERTON, }

SAN FRANCISCO, Sept. 1, 1874.

FOR LAWYERS AND POLICY

holders.—Advice and Calculations in Life Insurance and Life Contingencies.

DAVID PARKS FACKLER, Consulting Actuary, 320 Broadway, New York. Elevator at side door.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

TERMS: In advance, one insertion, four cents per word; five insertions, three cents per word, each. The enclosure of a stamped and addressed envelope will secure a numbered box, to which communications may be addressed.

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